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improvement of standards and practices in public
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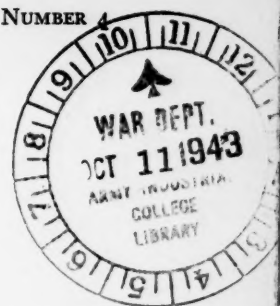
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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY.

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

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A Credit Union as Part of a Personnel Program

LINCOLN CLARK



EMPLOYEE morale, that intangible ingredient in any employer-employee relationship, is an imponderable element that can be affected for better or worse by many factors. Good morale contributes to harmonious relationships; bad morale may undermine and destroy those relationships. As such, morale and the factors that affect morale are of as much concern to the personnel administrator as they are to the line official and top management.

Aside from the immediate influences on employee morale, such as pay, working conditions, and similar factors, there are secondary contributory elements that are scarcely less influential. One of these is the matter of the employee's personal finances. Chances are more than even that an employee who is solvent and able to meet his obligations as they arise is in a frame of mind to concentrate all his thoughts and energies on his daily work. By the same token, the debt-ridden employee, or the one who is worrying over some unforeseen financial crisis, is a distracted man whose daily work suffers proportionately. That such financial problems underlie many cases of employee maladjustment is no mere assumption; statistics accompanying a recent description of an employee counseling program in the federal service show that "financial and budgeting problems" rank very high among the causes of employee difficulties.¹

¹ Margaret E. Barron, "Employee Counseling in a Federal Agency." *Personnel Administration*, March, 1942, pp. 1-10.

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A credit union provides, at least in part, a means whereby employees can meet and solve these financial problems. From the personnel point of view, it minimizes the repercussions on morale resulting from such problems in at least two ways: (a) it provides employees with a convenient source of low-rate credit; and (b) it assists and encourages employees to develop habits of thrift. The fact that it is conducted entirely by and among the employees themselves also suggests that the cooperative nature of a credit union may itself contribute significantly to *esprit de corps*.

These several benefits growing out of the operation of an employee credit union more than outweigh the negligible contributions required on the part of management—contributions that are largely in terms of good will, encouragement, and occasionally the provision of physical facilities for carrying on the business of the credit union. It is quite properly the role of the personnel officer to take a leading part in providing this initial sponsorship and in seeing that the movement gets started in the proper direction. To be able to do so effectively, however, the personnel officer should himself be adequately familiar with credit unions and how they operate.

THE CREDIT UNION MOVEMENT

THE development of the credit union movement is still in its early stages. In this country it began in 1909 with the passage of enabling legislation in Massachusetts. Since that time, most states have followed suit until now all but four have legislation

permitting the chartering of credit unions.

Systematic stimulation of credit unions began in 1920, when Edward A. Filene, Boston merchant and philanthropist, financed the Credit Union National Extension Bureau. Much of the early credit union legislation was drafted and placed before state legislatures by Roy F. Bergengren, who later became managing director of the Credit Union National Association. This association, a self-supporting organization of state leagues of credit unions, was formed in 1934. In addition to extensive membership in the United States, "CUNA" now includes credit union leagues in five Canadian provinces among its members.

In credit union annals the year 1934 was significant for another reason—the passage of the Federal Credit Union Act. This law provided machinery for the chartering and continuing supervision of credit unions under the aegis of the federal government. Responsibility for administration of the Act was first vested in the Farm Credit Adminis-

tration; in May, 1942, however, this responsibility was transferred to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.²

These two factors—the organization of the Credit Union National Association, and the enactment of the Federal Credit Union Act—have resulted in a marked acceleration in the growth of the credit union movement in the last decade. Table I, showing the year-by-year increase in the number of credit unions, also demonstrates the sharp upswing since 1934.

Most, but not all, credit unions are organized and operated by employees. Other founding groups include consumer cooperatives, labor unions, fraternal orders,

² First administrator of the Credit Union Act was Herbert Emmerich, then Executive Officer of the Farm Credit Administration. Administration of the Act later became the responsibility of C. R. Orchard, who first became interested in credit unions when he was personnel director of an Armour and Company plant. When administration of the Act was shifted to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, Mr. Orchard transferred to FDIC, where he continues to serve in his former capacity.

TABLE I. THE GROWTH OF CREDIT UNIONS (1910-1943)

Year	Number	Membership (in Thousands)	Assets (in Thousands)	Loans Made (in Thousands)
1910 ^a	2	0.1	\$ 2	\$
1915 ^b	48	8.0	471
1920 ^b	142	40.0	3,568
1925 ^b	419	219.0	21,165
1930 ^c	1,099	302.0	37,675
1931 ^c	1,300	320.0	36,553
1932 ^c	1,555	335.0	35,556
1933 ^c	1,929	404.0	36,965
1934 ^c	2,431	539.0	44,359
1935 ^c	3,800	822.0	59,507
1936 ^c	5,352	1,170.0	83,071	100,200
1937 ^c	6,292	1,588.0	115,399	147,210
1938 ^c	7,314	1,927.0	147,156	180,848
1939 ^c	8,326	2,405.0	192,724	238,903
1940 ^c	9,479	2,816.0	252,293	306,093
1941 ^c	10,425	3,532.0	322,515	362,779
1942 ^d	215,000

Sources of Data:

^a J. L. Snider. *Credit Unions in Massachusetts*. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1940.)

^b Rolf Nugent. *Credit Union Primer*. (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1940.)

^c Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, unpublished data.

^d Federal Reserve Bulletin, April, 1943.

churches, and similar groups sharing a common bond of interest. But the great majority consists of employee groups, both in private industry and in the public service. Table II shows the current distribution of credit unions in the public service.

TABLE II. DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC EMPLOYEE CREDIT UNIONS (1943)

	State	Federally	
Employee Groups	Chartered	Chartered	Total
Federal employees....	460	364	824
State employees.....	92	60	152
Municipal employees..	256	162	418
Teachers and school employees	330	296	626
Total	1,138	882	2,020

From a numerical standpoint, however, employee credit unions in private industry at the present time far exceed those in the public service. On March 31, 1943, for example, there were in addition to the 882 federally chartered public employee credit unions, 2,597 federally chartered private employee groups. Although comparable records for state-chartered groups are not available, it is a conservative estimate that there are all together approximately five thousand private employee credit unions in the United States.

EXPERIENCE IN PRIVATE INDUSTRY

SINCE the preponderance of management experience with employee credit unions has been in private industry, it is illuminating to examine a consensus of views on the subject, as reflected in a recent survey among private employers.³ The following summary, showing the questions asked in the survey and the distribution of employers' replies, makes the study of considerable interest as an indication of the general significance of credit unions in any employee group, private or public.

1. *Has the credit union tended to keep employees out of the hands of high-rate money lenders?*

Yes96%
No 1%
Indefinite and no comment.. 3%

2. *Has the credit union diminished company loans? Garnishments? Attachments?*

Yes91%
No 5%
Indefinite and no comment.. 4%

3. *Has it built up employee morale?*

Yes81%
No 4%
Indefinite and no comment.. 15%

4. *Has it resulted in more cordial relations among the employees in their daily work?*

Yes67%
No10%
Indefinite and no comment.. 23%

5. *Has it improved employer-employee relations?*

Yes66%
No12%
Indefinite and no comment.. 22%

6. *Has it educated and trained employees so that they could improve their positions?*

Yes55%
No22%
Indefinite and no comment.. 23%

7. *Has it helped the company to discover employees naturally adapted or trained for responsible jobs?*

Yes36%
No36%
Indefinite and no comment.. 28%

8. *Has it given employees a better appreciation of the company's problems and its viewpoint?*

Yes34%
No29%
Indefinite and no comment.. 37%

9. *Has it assisted in reducing the rate of labor turnover?*

Yes24%
No40%
Indefinite and no comment.. 36%

³ *Management Appraises the Credit Union.* (Washington: Government Printing Office, June, 1941.)

10. *Has the existence of the credit union had any adverse effects?*⁴

Yes 9%
 No 67%
 Indefinite and no comment . . 24%

Judging from the foregoing summary, it is quite apparent that private employers look with favor on the establishment of credit unions among their employees. That their interest in this activity is more than passive is demonstrated by another study conducted by the publication *Adequate Profits*. In the May 1941 issue appears the findings of a questionnaire circulated among employers covering more than three thousand employee credit unions. In an analysis of the replies, the following percentages are significant:

Eighty-one per cent were given free office space by their employers.

Forty-two per cent were granted some company time in which to perform work in connection with the credit union.

Thirty-four per cent were allowed payroll deductions. (This increases the efficacy of the credit union in encouraging regular habits of thrift, and eliminates many of the causes of loan delinquency.)

Twenty-eight per cent were given some free clerical assistance by their employers. (This tends to drop off as the credit union passes its formative stages and grows into a self-sustaining organization.)

Viewed together, these two studies contribute strongly to the inference that private employers, and presumably private personnel administrators, have found the operation

⁴ Not one of the letters received was unfavorable to the credit union plan. Typical of those which expressed any criticism is this comment: "Recognizing these difficulties, it is still our judgment that credit unions are a very constructive force in our organization and that their benefits far outweigh their inevitable disadvantages."

The chief criticism was that the credit union made loans too easy to get. Others were that it required too much time and effort, that it embarrassed co-makers who were compelled to assume their obligations, and that it disgruntled those whose loan applications were refused. One employer stated that it was used by some of the newer employees in an effort to insure their jobs.

of credit unions among their employees to be a beneficial influence. Moreover, they have given tangible backing to their belief by going out of their way to lend assistance in the founding of such credit unions and to expedite their continuing operation. Further study of the literature of the field strongly reinforces this conclusion.⁵

THE ORGANIZATION OF A CREDIT UNION

THUS far the term "credit union" has been used in a general way only. Specifically, to quote a government leaflet, "A credit union is a group of persons associated together in their daily life who agree to build up a fund with their savings and make needed loans from this fund, at reasonable interest rates, to members of the group. Usually the group consists of the employees of a single employer such as employees of a manufacturing company, or an office, or a governmental agency. In some cases the common bond consists of membership in a church, a labor union, a cooperative, or residence in a small rural community, or similar groups involving strong common interests and a certain amount of acquaintanceship with each other."⁶

The membership of some of the early credit unions was not limited to persons with "strong common interests." They had "open membership." This type of credit union, however, was not generally successful and the present practice is to insist upon the "common bond." It appears that the close association among credit union members is one of the chief reasons why credit union loans are, comparatively, so economical. The members know each other. They avoid expensive credit investigations. They do not have to maintain expensive centrally located offices. Having the credit union office where they work makes it easier for them to make share deposits and payments on their loans regularly. Finally, this com-

⁵ For additional sources of information, see the short bibliography accompanying this article.

⁶ *Facts About Credit Unions*. Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.

munal basis of operation makes it more convenient for officials and committeemen to contribute the voluntary service upon which the success of a credit union very largely depends.

The typical credit union is organized by seven or more "subscribers" or "organizers" who come from a "common bond" group of at least 100 members. After it is established to the satisfaction of the chartering authority, state or federal, that the group has (a) economic need of credit union service, and (b) the ability to operate a credit union successfully, the charter is granted. Among the factors considered in determining the probable ability to operate a credit union successfully are: (1) regular association of members, with provision for the transaction of credit union business at a convenient meeting place; (2) able and conscientious leaders who are ready to give the considerable amount of voluntary service which is required, especially in the early organizational stages of the credit union; and (3) in the case of employee groups, reasonable encouragement from company or agency executives.

Credit union subscribers agree to purchase at least one share, usually five dollars, and to pay a twenty-five cent membership fee. All subsequent applicants for membership must do likewise. After the charter has been granted, an organization meeting is held at which the three principal governing bodies are elected—a board of from five to nine members, a supervisory committee, usually consisting of three members, and a credit committee of three or more members. Often an educational committee is also elected. Share deposits are promptly accepted, and as soon as the treasury contains approximately fifty dollars, the first loan is made.

An employee credit union, once established, is a self-contained entity; in so far as the employer is concerned, neither financial assistance nor general overseeing are contemplated in the pattern of operation. Within the framework of the external super-

vision and auditing provided by the chartering agency, the organization is free to determine its own policies and procedures. This self-sufficiency is achieved largely through the functioning of the officers and the several committees elected from among the membership. Thus, a description of the machinery of administration will give an insight into the democratic, cooperative nature of the credit union as a whole.

Board of Directors. The board of directors exercises general direction and control over the affairs of the credit union. In so far as federally chartered credit unions are concerned, the general powers and duties of the board of directors are set forth in the standard bylaws as follows:¹

The board of directors shall have the general direction and control of the affairs of this credit union. In addition to the duties customarily performed by boards of directors, the board of directors shall:

- a). Act upon all applications for membership.
- b). From time to time fix the amount and character of, and approve, surety bonds required of any persons handling or having custody of funds, and may authorize the payment of the premium or premiums therefor, by this credit union.
- c). Recommend the declaration of dividends.
- d). Fill vacancies in the board of directors and in the credit committee, as herein provided.
- e). Employ, fix the compensation, and prescribe the duties of such employees as may, in the discretion of the board of directors, be necessary.
- f). Determine from time to time the maximum number of shares that may be held by any member.
- g). Determine from time to time the interest rates on loans and the maximum amount that may be loaned, with or without security, to any member within the limitations prescribed by laws. When, by action of the board of directors, the interest rates on future loans are reduced, similar action may be taken with regard to interest rates on unpaid balances of existing loans.
- h). Authorize and supervise investments of the credit union other than loans to members.
- i). Designate the depository or depositories for the funds of the credit union.
- j). Authorize borrowings and discounting operations on behalf of the credit union within the limitations prescribed by the Federal Credit Union Act, and any regulations issued thereunder by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.

¹ *Federal Credit Union Bylaws, Specimen Copy.* (Washington: Government Printing Office, September, 1942.)

k). Supervise the collection of loans to members and authorize, when necessary, the charge-off of uncollectible loans.

Officers. The board of directors elects the officers of the credit union from among its own number. These officers are president, vice-president, treasurer, and clerk. It is particularly important that the treasurer be conscientious and capable, for this officer generally serves as general manager of the credit union and, as such, is the most important official. He is usually the only board member who may receive pay for his service. It is not essential that the credit union treasurer be an experienced accountant or bookkeeper, for credit union account record keeping is quite simple and easily learned. However, the treasurer must not only keep those records conscientiously; he must also encourage and organize the voluntary assistance from the other board and committee members, and the credit union members themselves, upon which the success of the credit union depends.

Supervisory Committee. The supervisory committee audits the books of the credit union every quarter and reports directly to the membership at its annual meeting. It makes a complete check of the members' passbooks at least every two years. Annual or more frequent reports are made to the outside supervising authority. In the case of federal credit unions the supervisory committee may, for cause, suspend a board member, officer, or credit committee member, and call special meetings of the members to consider action based on critical findings of the committee.

Credit Committee. The credit committee reviews all applications for loans from the credit union and must approve all loans granted. Chosen from the membership, its members are familiar with the general problems faced by the borrower. In many instances one or more members of the committee know him personally. They are thus in a position to be of service both to the credit union and the borrower. They can determine without an expensive credit in-

vestigation whether the proposed loan is a good risk, and they can advise the borrower on the probable wisdom of the loan. The value of this service to the borrower is stressed by credit union leaders. They emphasize that the credit union is organized not for profit, but to render service. For this reason credit union loans may be made only for "provident or productive" purposes. In other words, they are designed to give relief in unforeseen emergencies, or to provide some goods or service which contribute substantially to the welfare of the borrower. All members are encouraged to make regular share deposits, and only those who really need loans are encouraged to obtain them.

The credit committee may persuade the loan applicant that the purpose for which the loan is wanted is not a wise one. Or it may suggest that the loan requested is not large enough really to solve the problem faced. The credit committee is thus more than a credit investigating agency. It serves as financial and budgetary counselor to credit union members. A publication of the Federal Credit Union Section sums it up thus: "The function and the work of the credit committee . . . is to make effective social use of the funds entrusted to their care in the form of loans to the members for provident or productive purposes. . . . The functions of the credit committee, therefore, truly comprise the heart of credit union activity."⁸

In a large percentage of credit union loans the only security is the member's signature, together with a pledge of his share deposits. These may be as little as five dollars. Loans above a minimum amount—one hundred dollars in the case of federal credit unions—are required by law to have other security, usually consisting of co-signers. Lower minimums may be set by the board of directors, or by the credit committee.

Education Committee. It is not necessary that the organizational plan of the credit

⁸ Farm Credit Administration. *Credit Committee Handbook*. (Washington: Government Printing Office, September, 1941.)

union include an educational committee, but there appears to be substantial correlation between those credit unions which have such a committee and those which are unusually successful. The committee is sometimes elected by the members or the directors; sometimes it is appointed by the president. It may consist of only two or three members, but the most successful ones are often quite large, representing a broad cross-section of the membership's interests and abilities. Within the scope of this committee's work are such activities as: membership drives; the organization of budget-planning and other study groups; the preparation and distribution of circulars, leaflets, posters, and other graphic educational material; the issuance of press releases; the issuance of a regular bulletin; radio programs; and the preparation of annual membership meeting programs.

CONTROL OVER OPERATIONS

FINAL authority for the operation of a credit union rests with the membership, subject, of course, to charter provisions and the external supervision exercised by the chartering agency. This self-government is carried on through the medium of annual and special meetings. In almost all cases, each member has only one vote at such meetings, regardless of the number of shares he may own.

At the annual meeting the credit union members elect the directors and committee members, consider reports, decide what dividend, if any, shall be paid, and take action on any other question of general policy that may be placed before them. Dividends can be declared only out of undivided surplus, and only after a portion of any net profit is set aside as a reserve for bad debts (usually 20 per cent). Legislative restrictions usually limit the dividend payment rate to six per cent on shares outstanding at the end of the year. A few state laws permit patronage refunds to borrowers, after certain minimum share dividends are provided for.

So well have credit unions been operated and supervised that losses to members have been negligible. Federal and state authorities make several provisions to safeguard credit union funds: Cash must be deposited in insured banks; strict limitations are placed upon surplus fund investments; periodic examinations are made; the treasurer and other money-handling agents must be bonded; and twenty per cent of earnings must be set aside as a reserve for bad loans. In this connection it is interesting to note that, for 350 federal employees' credit unions, the loans charged off from date of organization through December 31, 1941, amounted to \$37,953.00 out of a total amount loaned of \$48,355,438.00—a bad debt loss of eight-tenths of one per cent.⁹

In addition to the internal supervision and audit provided by the supervising committees, credit unions are officially supervised by the state or federal agency which charters them. These agencies make regular examinations, set up minimum bonding schedules, exercise general supervision, and provide some counsel and assistance in solving operating and other problems. The Federal Credit Union Section has published helpful manuals and handbooks, some of which have already been cited. The publication of a bi-monthly magazine, *Cooperative Saving With Federal Credit Unions*, which contained operating ideas and suggestions, has been suspended because of the war. The war has also curtailed to a considerable degree the assistance the Section has been able to give.

The Credit Union National Association ("CUNA") and other voluntary organizations of credit unions also provide assistance and the means by which operating experience and ideas may be shared by the various groups. Local "chapters" and state "leagues" of credit unions often prove particularly helpful in making successful ideas and methods generally available. CUNA

⁹ Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation. *Federal Credit Unions, Annual Report on Operations, December 31, 1941.*

issues a monthly magazine, *The Bridge*, and most leagues and chapters also have regular publications.

THE ROLE OF THE EMPLOYER

IN CONNECTION with the establishment of a credit union, one question arises which requires a carefully considered answer: "How far should the employer go in fostering the establishment of an employee credit union, and in helping along with its continuing operation?" Regarding the first portion of this question—the matter of encouraging the formation of the credit union—it is quite obvious that any employer convinced of the desirability of a credit union as an adjunct to the over-all personnel program should at least place no obstacle in the way of its founding. The employee body should be made aware of the favorable attitude of management toward such an undertaking, and if the idea is greeted receptively, interested employees should have placed at their disposal as much information as possible concerning the proper course to follow. The same holds true, of course, in the frequent instances wherein the initial impetus towards organization comes spontaneously from the employees.

Beyond expressing good will and encouragement toward the undertaking, however, it is necessary that the employer steer a careful course that avoids both paternalism and indifference. Cases have occurred, unfortunately, where employers have "moved in" and dominated the credit union, forgetting the fact that, to be successful, such an undertaking must be operated *by*, as well as *for*, its membership. The reverse situation has also occurred: some credit unions have encountered under-cover opposition on the part of subordinate officials, even though the undertaking has received the endorsement of top management.

There are several points at which determination of management policy are necessary. Among these are the questions of providing such indirect subsidies as rent-free office space, clerical assistance, and permission for

officers and members to transact credit union business on the employer's time. Insofar as the public service is concerned, it is not sufficient to consider only the intrinsic merits of these questions; the department head must explore the legal implications and complications as well. There are also the questions of the extent, if any, to which the employer and the personnel department should formally participate in the affairs of the credit union through membership on governing committees, or by exercising any forms of compulsion on borrowers to guarantee or hasten the repayment of loans.

In both of these areas of policy determination, existing local conditions and the stage of development of the credit union are influential factors. Regarding the matter of office space, for example, the size of the credit union and the volume of its business will determine the course to follow. In a small group, the credit union "office" may well be the work desk of the treasurer; in a larger organization more formal quarters may be needed. Almost all of the larger employee credit unions are supplied with office space by the employers. Indeed, the Federal Credit Union Act, as amended in 1937, specifically authorizes federal governmental agencies to make such provisions for credit unions among their employees.

Again, in the matter of providing clerical assistance, or permitting the treasurer to devote a limited portion of the work day to credit union affairs, existing local conditions should be the determining factor. In a small, new credit union, such a policy has ample justification. If the treasurer's office is a paid one, however, the justification disappears. In this connection it is noteworthy that the larger organizations, such as the New York Municipal Employee Credit Union, have several regular full-time employees, and keep regular business hours. It is desirable for the employer to cooperate in the direction of regularizing the hours for receiving share deposits, payment on loans, and loan applications. Whether these activities take place entirely within or out-

side the work day, or possibly on a "half-and-half" basis, is a matter for individual determination.

To the extent that the employer subsidizes the initial phase of the credit union's activities, the officers and membership should take a business-like attitude toward whatever assistance the organization receives. While subsidies may be justifiable in the early stages of development, as a credit union reaches maturity it should stand on its own feet. Some credit unions among federal employees in Washington, for example, have arbitrarily held down the limits of share holdings by members and have encouraged loans. The purpose in these cases has been to maintain a high dividend rate of 5 to 6 per cent.

Personnel officers should not coddle well-developed credit unions by permitting government paid personnel to devote office hour time to credit union affairs. While agencies are permitted by law to provide office space, additional grants in the form of light and heat, furniture, and stationery are only warranted after review of the credit union's earnings position and ability to pay.

It is doubtful whether personnel officers should accept office in the credit union or in any other way be concerned with employees' private financial affairs. It is likewise questionable whether the personnel department should be counted upon by credit unions to help in the collection of loans from recalcitrant borrowers, unless a payroll deduction plan has been voluntarily agreed upon by the employee. The easiest way to collect a loan is to "tell the boss," but a wide-awake credit union can exercise considerable pressure by informing members of delinquent members. Collection as a result of membership pressure will stimulate interest in the credit union and save the personnel office much troublesome detail. Furthermore the membership itself will usually prefer to handle its own loan and collection problems without any "prying into their affairs" by the placement or personnel officer. A "hands off" policy is par-

ticularly warranted in view of the fact that one of the justifications of credit unions, from the point of view of management, is to be spared the bother of dealing with money lenders, whether private or cooperative, who are trying to collect loans.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE PERSONNEL PROGRAM

THUS far this discussion has indicated only in a general way the contribution that a credit union can make to the personnel program of a governmental agency. The precise nature of that contribution will of course depend upon the particular group and the problems it faces. However, some fairly specific observations can be made.

1. The credit union serves chiefly to increase employee morale and efficiency by providing relief from financial worries. An employee who needs money badly, or who has had to borrow money from a loan shark and is being dunned for the loan, is not likely to do his best work or to contribute to the maintenance of group morale.

2. Credit unions also provide a convenient source of loans for other needs which, while not so urgent, contribute to the welfare of the employee. Loans for medical and dental treatment, for education, and for almost any purpose which means much to the employee, are examples.

3. The fact that the credit union, in contrast to most other loan agencies, places so much stress upon thrift is particularly significant. Nearly all the money lent is furnished by the members' own share deposits. These represent the quarters, half-dollars, and dollars they have saved out of their pay, largely because of the influence of the credit union, and because of its convenience. It has been estimated that very little of the more than two hundred and seventy-five million dollars now invested in credit union share deposits would have been saved if it had not been for the credit union.¹⁰

4. A credit union may provide a number of ancillary benefits to both employing

¹⁰ C. R. Orchard. *The Power of Fifty Cents*. (Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, no date.)

agency and employee. It tends to eliminate the embarrassment and bother caused by collectors from loan sharks and high-rate money lenders. The successful credit union depends on the cooperation of employees with their fellow employees, and with the personnel office, and the very operation of the organization tends to develop that cooperation. The substantial service it may render brings employees and employers closer together and offers to management an opportunity to present appreciated assistance without becoming paternalistic. The experience in the democratic management of their own cooperative organization should help credit union members become better citizens and better employees.

EXAMPLES of the unusual service that credit unions render employees will further document the case for them. The following case histories picked at random give tangible evidence of the manner in which the financial problems of employees are solved, or at least minimized, by their credit unions.

Credit unions serving teacher groups who receive only nine pay checks during the year often help their members in this manner: The member deposits each pay check with the credit union, which issues in return every month throughout the year its own check for one-twelfth the member's annual pay. This helps the member to tide over the three non-income-earning months, which would otherwise often find him short of funds.

On the last day of the course of training given rookie members of the Los Angeles, California, police force, the treasurer of the police force credit union is invited to speak about the credit union. In addition to distributing membership application blanks, she takes loan application blanks, already filled out, except for names, with applications for loans of one hundred dollars. (Experience has shown that out of each class there will be, on the average, about 90 per cent of the individuals who will need to borrow this amount for the purchase of their uniforms and equipment.) The credit committee regularly and promptly approves these loan applications and the process has been repeated for years without loss to the credit union. A major problem of the rookies is thus economically solved.

A member of a War Department federal credit union was ordered to leave on an official trip which

would require her to travel for several weeks. She had from noon, when she received the order, to that evening when her plane left, to raise the \$150 she lacked of the amount required to cover her expenses until official remuneration would be forthcoming. A personnel officer reminded her of the credit union, which she had not yet joined. By five o'clock that afternoon she had the money, although it involved a special meeting of the board of directors to approve her application for membership and a similar meeting of the credit committee to approve the loan application.

A worker, due to the continued illness of his wife, used up all his savings, and had some large unpaid bills. His worry over these bills was reflected in a decrease in his work efficiency. His supervisor discovered his trouble and persuaded him to call on the credit union for help. The total amount of his bills was so great that he was unable to arrange for a loan sufficiently large to pay all of them. However, the credit committee suggested a solution of the problem, and helped him get the cooperation of his creditors. He made a series of three loans, each time paying his creditors a pro-rata portion of their bills. What this help meant to him was shown in his expression of gratitude to the credit committee, but it was even more evident in the new spirit that he put into his daily living and in the increased effectiveness of his work.

BY WAY of conclusion it should be stressed once more that the purpose of the credit union is only half accomplished when it has provided a member with helpful loan service. Only when the member has firmly established the habit of making regular savings is the ultimate aim of the credit union satisfied, for its basic purpose is to help its members build up their resources, collectively and individually. Nor are the dramatic bits of exceptional service, such as those recounted above, the most significant manifestations of the credit union's worth. It is the faithful day-to-day service of officials and committee members, the regular thrift programs developed by the members, and the intelligent use of the loan facilities provided by that thrift, which makes the credit union a broadly significant organization. Like all socially beneficial organizations, it undertakes to help its members to join together for their mutual gain, making them happier men and women, better neighbors, and better employees.

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Organization Analysis Surveys in a Personnel Agency Program

EDWARD H. LITCHFIELD

ORTHODOX thought in the field of public management has long held organization analysis to be a function of a budget agency.¹ That current practice—at least on the federal level—still conforms to this doctrine is shown by a recent survey of administrative planning conducted by the Civilian Personnel Division of the Office of the Secretary of War, wherein it is pointed out: "... about three times as many are directly connected with their agency's budget office, or budget process, as are similarly connected with their personnel office."² Insofar as the activity is carried on at all in state and municipal governments it is probably safe to say that on those levels also, the prevailing pattern calls for the performance of the function by fiscal agencies.³

Yet for all of the dominance of this idea in American government today, there have always been those who have urged that the activity is one which might well be performed by a personnel agency. During the last year there would appear to have been a

quicken interest in the question on the part of the personnel people themselves. Several large state agencies have either conducted or participated in the conduct of organization surveys.⁴ A large park district has recently embarked upon such a program.⁵ A morning session of the 1943 Central Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly included a discussion of the subject, and a majority of the delegates at that session expressed the opinion that the conduct of organization analyses was a legitimate function of a personnel agency.

Underlying these several points of view there are, of course, divergent theories of organization. Those who adhere to the budget approach probably hold, in the last analysis, that sound organization structure has as its fundamental value the financial savings in which it may result. If a budget is a plan expressed in financial terms, it would appear to follow that any of the tools of effective management which by their introduction or improvement might reduce the cost of such a plan are, ipso facto, budget problems. To many administrators this must appear strikingly similar to the type of reasoning which was popular some years ago which held that all of the several auxiliary activities of purchasing, personnel, and budgeting were but several aspects of the work of a well-conceived department of finance.⁶ Since that time the personnel

¹ See *Report of President's Committee on Administrative Management*, p. 19. "The administrative research function of the Bureau of the Budget should be adequately developed to aid the President in his duties as head of the executive establishment. The Bureau should carry on constructive studies in public administration for the constant improvement of government organization and procedure and should also stimulate continuous study of these problems by departments and bureaus."

² "Administrative Planning Agencies in the Federal Government." Civilian Personnel Division, Office of the Secretary of War, 1942, p. 17.

³ For example, see Leonard D. White, "Trends in Public Administration." McGraw-Hill, 1933, p. 186.

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⁴ Michigan and Minnesota.

⁵ Chicago Park District.

⁶ For example the Massachusetts Commission on Administration and Finance in 1922 was assigned personnel functions; also see Porter, "State Administration," Crofts & Co., 1938, p. 209.

function has generally succeeded in emancipating itself despite the fact that it is logically as integral a part of financial administration as is purchasing. One would wonder if the necessities of practical administration which have dictated the emergence of the personnel function as a coordinate function of the executive will not also lead the budget people to relax their traditionally exercised control over the function of administrative planning.⁷

To argue the inadequacy of the budget school of thought is not, however, to prove the contentions of those who would make of organization and procedure analysis a personnel function. Indeed, if the reasoning set forth above be sound, it would run against the one quite as much as the other. If those who hold this to be a personnel function have theoretical foundation for their position, it probably rests on two principal lines of reasoning, which may be stated somewhat as follows. In the first place, it is pointed out, manpower shortages introduce a unit of value which must be carefully conserved and which is even more fundamental than the dollar value which may be placed upon it. Manpower may be conserved through maximum use of available skills, and it may also be further conserved through the introduction of increased structural and procedural efficiency. That the first of these means of conserving manpower is a concern of the personnel agency none would deny; that the second is so closely related to the first, as a result of the common purpose which they serve, is the reasoning of those who would justify the inclusion of both in the personnel agency. A further and more usual contention in behalf of this point of view is that organization and classification analysis are almost inextricable. Both employ the same basic data, operate in the same sphere, and make use of similar desk auditing processes as integral parts of their work technique.

⁷ See "Administrative Planning Agencies in the Federal Government," *op. cit.*, p. 17.

THE evaluation of the merits of these respective positions has no place in this discussion. Its purpose is, rather, to relate the experiences of a personnel agency which for some time now has been conducting administrative planning activities, to the end that those experiences may serve others who, with further information and greater competence, may undertake an evaluation of the two viewpoints. In fact, in order that there may be no misunderstanding of the writer's position on this subject, he would like to make it clear that he is personally convinced that the function deserves separate organization status which would result in the administrative analyst being, as Glaser says, "... on a par with the personnel officer, the fiscal officer, and the purchasing officer."⁸ Or, to present the same thought in the words of the student in the field of industrial management, "The very nature of the problem and its manifold aspects suggest that the responsible agency report to the president or the general-management group."⁹

In addition to making it clear that the writer holds no brief for the personnel agency's theoretical place in this type of program, it is also important to understand how the Michigan Civil Service Commission came to undertake the activity. Assumption of responsibility for this work was based on no theoretical consideration of the abstract values to be derived from the location of the activity in a particular part of state government. It stemmed rather from the simple but important fact that the prevalence of poor organization and frequent overstaffing necessitated action from some direction. The absence of an independent administrative planning agency or a division of administrative management in the budget office obliged the one auxiliary agency which was financially and legally equipped to un-

⁸ Comstock Glaser, "Administrative Procedure." American Council on Public Affairs, 1941, p. 150.

⁹ Holden, Fish and Smith, "Top-Management Organization and Control." Stanford University Press, 1941, p. 103.

dertake such activities to do so.¹⁰ The decision was a pragmatic one which must be assumed to cast no reflection on the merits of the respective theories of organization.

It has already been noted that those who sympathize with the location of this activity in the personnel agency are inclined to urge the justification of such a step on the grounds of the similarity of the tasks of organization and classification analysis. At first glance this is a fairly compelling bit of reasoning. Upon closer analysis, however, based on the experience of this agency, it appears that the activities are similar only in that they are both concerned with the same work unit, the individual job. Actually the differences between them are far greater than is this one point of similarity. It has been our experience that much of the information about the individual position which organization analysis requires is unnecessary for classification purposes. The psychologies of the two staffs are basically different, if not actually antagonistic. The purposes of the analyses themselves are entirely different.

USE OF THE POSITION DESCRIPTION FORM

THE interest which both types of analysis share in the individual position results in the use of the position description form by both staff divisions. This has had several very practical consequences in the Michigan agency. In the first place, the position description must be revised to accommodate it

¹⁰ Since that time the legislature has established a Department of Business Administration. To that agency it assigned authority "to make investigations of any or all executive or administrative departments, boards, institutions, commissions or agencies in the state government to determine whether the activities thereof are essential to good government and are being carried on in an economical and efficient manner and without duplication, for the purpose of determining the feasibility of improving the administration of the state government by the elimination of all unnecessary activities, the avoidance of duplication, and increasing efficiency and economical operation by consolidation or rearrangement of any such state departments, boards, institutions, commissions and agencies." (Act No. 2 of the Public Acts of 1943.) Since the establishment of that agency, the Civil Service Commission studies have been restricted to problems occurring within individual agencies. The Department of Business Administration, on the other hand, has concentrated upon interdepartmental organization surveys.

to the greater amount of structural information which its use by the new activity necessitates. Furthermore, to service the organization analysis division properly, the standard position description form must be revised in the direction of supplying information about the position as it enters into the work flow process—information which is not normally collected in position description forms in the public service.¹¹ Nor are such data normally collected in the position description employed in private industry.¹² An illustration of a job specification in the industrial field comparable to that suggested here, is the rather unusual one for a District Sales Manager found in Holden, Fish and Smith.¹³ In many instances this added information proves of value for classification purposes as well, though in the average case it is relatively extraneous to classification decisions.

Another by-product of this new activity is that it has become necessary to revise the filing system used for the position description forms. In the Michigan agency, as in so many others, position description forms have always been filed under the name of the individuals occupying them. Organization analysis is even less concerned with the person than is position-classification, and it therefore became necessary to refile all position description forms on the basis of organization factors rather than by incumbent. While this may seem a simple process, it has actually proved to be a rather considerable undertaking—one in which the body of experience elsewhere was too meager to be of material assistance.

TO ORGANIZE position description forms in terms of their structural relationships meant the preparation of a cod-

¹¹ For example, see the report of the Committee on Position-Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Service, "Position-Classification in the Public Service," Appendix A. Civil Service Assembly, 1941, pp. 339-71.

¹² See representative materials in Benge, Burke and Hay, "Manual of Job Evaluation." Harper and Brothers, 1941, pp. 65-68.

¹³ Holden, Fish, Smith, *op cit.*, pp. 96-7.

ing system by means of which each individual position might be identified. This has come in time to be known as the "Established Positions List." The positions are coded by department, division, section, unit and position. The small amount of data maintained for the position itself, such as date of establishment, previous occupants, whether vacant or filled, past and present allocation, etc., are recorded on visible index equipment for ready reference. At the present time the index file is maintained by two clerks working under the supervision of an administrator who is responsible for all transactions. Through the use of the Established Positions List, it has for the first time been possible for the agency to distinguish sharply between the position and the individual. It is the writer's personal conviction that in the absence of such a system an agency fails to implement the distinction between person and position which, as classification people, we have always said is so basic. There is an astonishing incongruity between the literature of the field¹⁴ and the almost complete absence in practical operation of the most basic device for the separation of the employee and his position.

The mechanics of an Established Positions List system are probably worthy of separate consideration elsewhere. The subject has been mentioned in this paper in order to call attention to the fact that without such a system it is impossible to file position description forms in a manner which will be of any material value to the organization analyst. Related to this is another change which the joint use of position description forms has introduced. All position description files have been removed from the general file and have been relocated in such a manner that both the classification and organization analysis staffs have access to them. In addition to servicing both divisions it is hoped that this change will have another beneficial feature: When position descrip-

tions are immediately available to the individual classification or organization analyst, he is more apt to use them than if they are in the general file. One would like to think that the analyst would use them much as a research person working in a library uses the materials on the shelf.

Before concluding this description of the position description form and its relationship to both classification and organization analysis, some attention should be directed to determining whether the foregoing discussion provides any additional information with which to evaluate the proper location of the organization analysis function. One would judge that, since the position description may be profitably employed in both analytical processes, probably no one would deny the value to be derived from the collection of the same data on a single form. Again, it is probably also true that there would be economy in operation if a single set of files of such materials could be maintained. This is especially true as long as the materials are filed in accordance with Established Positions List numbers. It does not follow, of course, that the organization and procedural analysis activities which employ these files need be a part of the personnel agency which maintains them. Assuming that floor space considerations permit, this basic file material might well be maintained by the personnel agency not only for its own use but for the use of the organization analysis agency and the budget agency as well. In other words, the elaborated position description form may well become a basic tool which would serve the personnel agency as but one of several central management groups, rather than making the personnel agency the sole beneficiary of the very useful information which it contains.¹⁵

¹⁵ The very limited use to which the public service puts position descriptions is further illustrated by the fact that its classification literature makes almost no point of the uses to which the description should be put in the operating departments themselves. Baruch devotes a footnote to the subject (*op. cit.*, p. 181); Mosher and Kingsley do not discuss it at all (*Public Personnel Administration*, Harper and Bros., 1941, pp.

¹⁴ For example, see "Position-Classification in the Public Service," *op. cit.*, pp. 37-40.

SOME DIFFERENCES IN APPROACH

THUS far in the consideration of the relationship between classification and administrative planning, attention has been directed entirely to the closeness of the relationship. It has already been indicated that the experience of the Michigan agency suggests that the distinctions between the two are greater than are these points of similarity. In the first place, the intellectual process performed by the organization analyst differs fundamentally from that of the classification analyst. Whereas the latter is almost exclusively an analytical process the former requires both analysis and synthesis on the part of the worker. The classifier must find the facts, analyze them in terms of the basic allocation factors recognized by his agency, and carefully delineate that which he has found. He is taught—both in Michigan and elsewhere—to describe the facts as he finds them. His own opinions as to the proper content of a given position and the character which that position might one day assume are factors he is trained to ignore. On the other hand, the organization analyst (though the term would be more accurate were it broadened) must recognize the facts of an existing situation not for their own sake but in order that he may compare them with predetermined standards of administrative operation. He is taught to create something better than he finds. He must introduce new organization patterns which will replace those which, were he a classifier, he would only analyze and describe. In short, in so far as he must evaluate existing facts and create something essen-

416-422); and others accord it similar attention. This is in decided contrast with such industrial materials as are found in recent works like those of Holden, Fish and Smith (op. cit., pp. 94-5). Thus in describing the purposes of the individual job description those authors list a total of four, two of which concern the central personnel agency and two of which concern the operating department. The general neglect of these management uses of job descriptions would appear to result from the fact that too many personnel agencies in the public service are still far more concerned about the controls which they exercise over the operating officials than they are with their broader responsibility of assisting management in the conduct of its tasks.

tially new, his is a different mental process from that of the classification analyst. In attempting to make the distinction between the two, it may well be that the impression has been conveyed that, in the Michigan Civil Service Department, organization work is considered more difficult than is classification. If so, the writer does not wish to convey this impression. The point is not that one is more difficult than the other, but that they differ in their intrinsic natures.

It is because of this difference in the thought processes employed in the respective divisions that this agency has made every effort to avoid assigning organization problems to members of the classification staff. While this has not always proved possible it has served as a useful guide in operation. It has been the agency's experience that, if the worker is faithful to his classification training, the reorganization work is apt to prove sterile. If, on the other hand, the organization analyst is assigned a classification problem he is apt to violate the most basic aspects of the classification plan as a result of his desire to introduce improvements wherever possible. In general, the agency has found that in conducting reorganization studies it is helpful if a representative of the classification division sits with the organization analyst at the time the allocation questions are considered. In many such instances there may be the same fundamental disagreement between the two divisions within the personnel agency as there normally is between the department head and the personnel agency. This the agency has found to be an altogether healthy conflict of opinion. Every effort is made to co-ordinate but, at the same time, separate the two activities.¹⁶ In this respect we would agree with Glaser when he says, "The administrative analyst may, in connection with a planned reorganization, prepare a schedule of proposed per-

¹⁶ It perhaps should be noted in this connection that for approximately nine months the two activities were consolidated. This occurred during the initial months of the program. The separation has prevailed now for more than one year.

sonnel actions, but it is preferable that he have little or nothing to do with personnel changes other than indicating the positions to be established or eliminated. Likewise, the personnel worker should keep out of the administrative analyst's field."¹⁷

THE literature of the field of administrative planning contains frequent references to the question of whether this activity is essentially staff or auxiliary in character.¹⁸ Aside from the theoretical problems which the question raises, there is the very practical issue involved as to whether the survey agency should initiate such studies of its own accord, or undertake them only upon the request of the line agencies. In so far as this jurisdiction is concerned, there has never been any uncertainty on this point; surveys are undertaken in those agencies which, in the opinion of the Civil Service Department, require attention, either because they appear overstaffed or because they appear poorly organized. While in most instances the survey staff has been cordially received by the operating departments, there have been occasional instances of opposition which have made the conduct of the survey more difficult. On the other hand, there have been several cases in which the line departments have voluntarily requested surveys.

Related to the question of whether this is an auxiliary or staff function is the further controversy as to whether the survey agency should have the authority to enforce its recommendations.¹⁹ This too has been rather simply resolved in the case of the Michigan agency. The State Constitution authorizes the Civil Service Department to approve "all personal service disbursements." A position abolished or consolidated as the result of a survey is subject to the same ultimate controls as are positions which are reallocated or persons whose status has been

taken from them. As a result of these two facts it would seem reasonably clear that organization analysis in the Michigan Civil Service Department is legally an auxiliary operation.

Yet, for all of the fact that the State Civil Service Department is in a position to undertake such surveys as may seem to it to be necessary and is able to enforce its decisions when necessary, the fact is that it has attempted to secure adoption of its recommendations by persuasive rather than coercive measures. Every reasonable sales device has been employed at one time or another in an effort to secure agreement from department heads to the proposals submitted. Frequently the staff has gone to considerable length in preparing graphic materials as a means of conveying ideas which would otherwise have been less easily understood. At the time of this writing it is still true that it has never been necessary to employ the ultimate authority of holding up payrolls in order to secure compliance with a survey proposal. When William Hodson wrote, "There seems to be almost universal agreement that effective planning of organization . . . depends upon the degree to which co-operation is obtained from operating officials who are closest to the problems involved."²⁰ this jurisdiction was already practicing the same doctrine.

The work of the Survey Division of the Civil Service Department is conducted by five technical employees. From time to time other members of the staff—particularly members of the research staff—are loaned to the division, making an average of approximately six technically trained persons.²¹ The staff members have been drawn from several different technical fields. Two were originally accountants; one has had a number of years of time-and-motion study and plant-

²⁰ *Ibid*, p. 17.

²¹ For a comparison with federal practice, see "Administrative Planning Agencies in the Federal Government," *op. cit.*, pp. 11-12. In making such comparisons it should be borne in mind that there are approximately 15,000 positions in the Michigan classified service.

¹⁷ Glaser, *op. cit.*, p. 146.

¹⁸ "Administrative Planning Agencies in the Federal Government," *op. cit.*, p. 15.

¹⁹ *Ibid*, p. 16.

layout experience in private industry; another has had both office management and classification experience; and one has had only administrative planning assignments since completing his schooling. All have had specific training in the still-meager knowledge of organization and procedure analysis.

RESULTS OF SURVEYS

DURING the last two years the agency has conducted eight surveys. Included among them were those for several of the state's larger departments, such as Liquor Control, Highway, Welfare, and Unemployment Compensation. The eight agencies employ 4,600 persons, or 37 per cent of the total number of state employees. Results of these surveys may be briefly set forth as follows:

In the first place, the total number of positions in the agencies surveyed has been reduced approximately ten per cent.²² Measured in terms of personal service costs, these economies aggregate approximately eight hundred thousand dollars. It must be emphasized that all of these actions have been taken without in any way reducing the number of services performed by the agencies involved. Furthermore, the very existence of the survey function plus the scrutiny of all new positions which was inaugurated at the same time, have had a salutary effect on the size of staff and payroll. During the two year period between August 1, 1941, and July 31, 1943, there was "a drop in the number of employees totaling 3,524. Of this number approximately 900 were transferred to the federal service. However, this still leaves a net reduction of 2,624. It would be well to point out here that this figure would be considerably larger if it were not that we permitted the addition of new positions in hospitals and prisons and others directly connected with the war effort, which totaled 800."²³ As a consequence of these reduc-

tions the annual payroll is now almost a million dollars lower than it was in 1941—this despite the fact that salary increases within established ranges and range adjustments during the same period have aggregated almost three million dollars.

In the second place, the organization surveys have, in most instances, resulted in the establishment of improved structures and practices which have reduced costs and improved departmental performance in ways which it would be difficult to measure in financial terms. Among these should be included the establishment of training programs in several of the departments, the installation of new record systems, the introduction of much-needed research programs, and a variety of similar changes. In many of the departments which have yet to be surveyed the principal problems are those of improper organization rather than over-staffing. For this reason the record of the next several years will probably show less regarding staff reduction than it will regarding improved operation.

Organization analysis divisions have been installed in several of the surveyed agencies. This point has been singled out from among those mentioned above because it has a direct bearing on the manner in which the surveys themselves have been carried on. Whenever the departmental situation offered any opportunity for the effective operation of organization and/or procedure analysis activities, the Civil Service Department recommended their installation. To these divisions or sections have been entrusted the responsibility of carrying on the work at the point at which the central agency was obliged to conclude. Some time later this idea was given further impetus by an instruction from the Governor regarding the appointment of at least one person to assume responsibility for these activities in each department.

Several of the tools employed by the Survey Division are perhaps deserving of comment. For example, the division has attempted to develop a rather extensive li-

²² It has been necessary to employ an approximate figure because variations in the size of the several programs conducted in those agencies over the two year period make exact measurement difficult.

²³ See Commission Minutes of August 3, 1943.

brary of organization charts. They have been collected from other states, from municipalities, from the federal government, and from industries which appeared to have problems of a similar organizational nature. In some instances they have been collected in preparation for specific surveys. Thus, when a survey of the State Highway Department was in prospect, organization charts were obtained from every other state highway department in the country. In other cases the charts have been collected as they have come to the attention of staff members and have been filed as illustrations of points which may some day become problems. This part of the work is still in its infancy. Since one staff member has been assigned to almost exclusive consideration of this problem, however, it is expected that another year will find the agency possessing one of the most extensive organization chart files in the country. These charts are used by the Civil Service Department as a source of new ideas of organization, but before an idea suggested by a chart is put into operation, it is tested by making specific inquiries in the jurisdiction in which it exists as to its precise results.

The general inadequacy of the organization charts obtained from many agencies—particularly those dealing with problems of the social sciences—has led the department to give serious consideration to the importance of developing standard symbols of organization chart presentation which will be universal in their acceptance. The results of certain preliminary thinking in this con-

nection will be published within the next few months. Practical application to a few of the techniques described in that publication was incorporated in an organization chart of the rather complex structure of the over-all state government, which was recently published by the Civil Service Department. Within the agency this organization chart symbolism is referred to as the "Ideography of Organization Structure." Though the term may suggest a theoretical concept having little practical value, actually the symbolism which it represents serves a very useful purpose. It provides the organization analyst with the same tools as the procedure analyst employs in diagramming the work flow in preparing work process charts.

THE experience of the Michigan State Civil Service Commission in the conduct of organization analyses during the last two years would appear neither to support nor refute any general proposition regarding the proper organizational status which should be accorded such activities. To one who has been close to the program, however, it would also appear that the conduct of such surveys has reduced the cost of state government, and has almost certainly improved its operation. To the student of technical administrative processes it may also suggest certain lessons regarding the value of close co-ordination, but at the same time separation, of organization analysis and the materials and processes of personnel management.

Military Personnel Administration: The United States Navy¹

LIEUTENANT-COMMANDER JAMES C. O'BRIEN

AT THE outset it must be stated that the title of this article is by way of being a misnomer, for the total program of personnel administration in the Navy is too broad to yield to a discussion which is necessarily as brief as this. The writer, therefore, has taken a note from the pages of the preceding articles in this series, and will confine this discussion to the subject of classification of naval personnel.

The large scale personnel operations in the armed services necessitated by warfare have demonstrated beyond doubt that full efficiency in the utilization of personnel can be achieved only by the establishment of sound classification procedures. In the military sense, the term "classification" does not carry the usual connotation of an evaluation of duties and responsibilities of a position as such. Rather, it means the process whereby the pattern of skills of an individual is broken into components and classified under a pre-determined coding system.

Wars are won by intelligent and effective deployment of men and material. It is a matter of basic strategy, therefore, to place each individual in that billet which will

guarantee the fullest possible utilization of his skills and, as a logical consequence, of the materials which may be put in his hands.

THE NAVY'S MISSION

THE Navy's mission in warfare is clear. It is primarily a combat organization designed to win the country's battles at sea, to play its appropriate part in combined operations, and to protect our commerce and that of our allies. Sea battles are fought with ships, planes, and guns, all of which are extremely complex machines. The Navy is, therefore, secondarily an engineering organization concerned with the design, manufacture, operation, and maintenance of the machines with which it fights. Its day to day routine operations extend to all corners of the globe and, like any huge and complex organization, the Navy is constantly confronted with complicated administrative and management problems. As a final note to this thumbnail statement of the Navy's mission, there must thus be added its vital concern in the training, placement, and welfare of its men. It is with these last phases of the Navy's mission that we are here concerned.

While the Navy, like the other services, has under-gone a tremendous expansion in the transition from peace to war, the expansion has been primarily one of enlargement. The fleet must be maintained during peace years as well as in wartime. The difference is that in wartime there must be a larger fleet concerned with the more complex problems which necessarily accompany

¹ This is the third of a series of articles dealing with various aspects of military personnel administration. The two preceding articles in the series were: *Military Personnel Administration: the United States Army*, by Major Reuben Horchow, appearing in the April, 1943 issue; and *Military Personnel Administration: the United States Marine Corps*, by Major Joseph W. Hawthorne, appearing in the July, 1943 issue.

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active warfare. There are greater complications in the problems of ship movements and logistics; new and complex instrumentalities of warfare must be adapted to actual rather than simulated battle conditions; fighting men must be procured, trained, and assigned to appropriate duty. In meeting these problems, the Navy has not hesitated to avail itself of every technique of modern personnel administration which could be reasonably expected to contribute to greater efficiency in the performance of its administrative tasks. Among the techniques the service has been quick to adopt are those represented by the most modern and scientific classification procedures.

CLASSIFICATION AND PLACEMENT PROCEDURES

A THREAD of similarity runs through placement problems which arise in both civilian and military personnel administration. In fact, close analogy can be found between many civilian organizational structures, particularly in the public service, and that of the naval service. The similarity, however, pretty much ends with organization structure; the procedural differences between civilian and military placement are clear cut. By and large, if a misplaced civilian administrator fails to make good, he can always be transferred, removed, or even in some cases, promoted to a more innocuous post. On the other hand, if the commanding officer of a ship fails to meet the standards of his job, the lives of hundreds or even thousands of fighting men, as well as their ship—a piece of machinery worth millions—can be wiped out in virtually a split second.

To this end, therefore, the Navy's classification and selection procedures for line officers aboard ship are relentlessly critical. Indeed, so much care and precision must be used in officer placement that the Navy has consistently maintained a centralized system of officer assignment. The skills of its officers are under constant appraisal and an electrical punch card system has been established to record to the ultimate degree the

qualifications, training, and aptitudes of naval officer personnel.

In approaching the problem of creating this centralized classification system, the Navy first took into account the wide variety of occupational skills which would naturally be encountered in an organization of its wartime proportions. As an initial step, therefore, the Navy devised occupational codes designed to provide a method of logically separating and classifying those skills into a coherent pattern since one of the basic objectives of any classification system is to have an appropriate numerical cubby-hole for any kind of qualification, no matter how rare, which may present itself. To meet this objective, the Navy's classification system has, as far as possible, adapted to its needs the pioneering work done in the field of occupational analysis by the United States Employment Service, the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, and the Inter-Departmental Placement Service of the United States Civil Service Commission. The research work of these organizations has contributed substantially to the results which the Navy has achieved in its over-all classification code structure.

Unlike position-classification, which has been an accepted tool of personnel administration for more than a decade, mechanized occupational analysis on a large scale is a relatively new technique of personnel management. Characteristically, however, the armed services have been quick to react to the need for this type of personnel administration, and even in the relatively short time that general classification procedures have been set up in the armed services, military classification has kept pace with, and in some areas, has even forged ahead of existing advances on the civilian front in the development of rapid and reliable methods of getting the right men into the right jobs.

Having worked out its occupational classification code structures, the Navy's Bureau of Naval Personnel was confronted with the tremendous task of eliciting sufficient data from each officer and enlisted man to provide

the necessary basis for its projected classification program. Necessarily different media were used to get the biographical facts from officers than were set up to get similar information from the enlisted men. Rapid movements of men, and in many cases, lack of experience on the part of the enlisted men in analyzing and presenting their own qualifications, led to the conclusion that the best way to secure the background data from enlisted personnel was through the interview method. As a consequence, interviewing offices have been established in all of the large basic naval training stations where inductees first report for duty; in this way necessary data can be secured from the "boot," as a newly enlisted sailor is familiarly called, at the outset of his naval career. In addition, mobile teams of classification interviewers are at work securing the necessary information from those enlisted men who had already passed through the basic training centers before service-wide classification procedures were established.

The questionnaire method is used in obtaining data from officers concerning their occupational backgrounds. Among the various items of qualification recorded in the central system are the following:

- Name
- Date of birth
- Date of commission
- Military status
- Number of dependents
- Language proficiencies
- Familiarity with foreign countries through residence or travel
- Avocations
- Licenses held
- Civilian education
- Civilian employment history
- Publications authored or patents held
- Naval courses or schools attended
- Naval duties—in service assignments

These, as well as other data secured from commanding officers regarding officers' aptitudes and capabilities, are reduced to codes and recorded on a central punch card sys-

tem. To these basic data are added facts concerning the development of officers in the military service, and skills they acquire through experience or otherwise, as they progress in their military duties.

A WORD as to how classification gears in with initial appointment may be of interest. As officers enter the service, careful attention is given to the skills they bring with them from civilian life so that, wherever possible, these skills may be utilized by the Navy to the greatest possible advantage. The process of appointing a naval officer is a selective one. Each candidate is considered for appointment in the light of the application of his skills to a particular branch or type of naval duty. Indeed, the process of officer procurement can, in many cases, be likened to "positive recruitment" as the term is used in civilian personnel procedures. Not only must the candidate possess the basic skills needed to perform the duties of the type of billet for which he is being considered, but he must also have demonstrated characteristics of leadership and the other officer-like qualifications which are so intangible, but have been proven to be so essential.

In addition, each officer candidate is given a newly developed and carefully validated test which measures his intellectual potentialities. It can be stated that an officer candidate who successfully emerges from an Office of Naval Officer Procurement has been given a thorough going over. But this is only the beginning. An individual accepted for a commission is ordinarily sent to an indoctrination school for basic naval training. Here the classification process commences. Each officer fills out his basic occupational questionnaire and is interviewed by an officer who, among other things, makes sure that the questionnaire presents an adequate picture of the new officer's background. All of this information finds its way into the central classification system and is considered in ordering the new officer to a special training activity or to a specific billet.

THE Navy seeks to plan in advance the number and types of officers it needs to carry on its operations, and is constantly combing civilian sources and the ranks of its enlisted men to see that these needs will be met as they arise. At the officer level, however, it is not always easy to translate an individual's civilian skills into military usefulness. For instance, the social scientist is useful in some branches of the service but there are a limited number of billets in which such occupational backgrounds can be given full expression. On the other hand, the Navy, like all war industries, has, so far, known no such thing as a plethora of engineers. Further, there are many naval occupations which have no civilian counterpart.

For these reasons, many newly procured officers must be rapidly "trained over" to occupations which are relevant to military operations. The officer classification system must keep pace with these training programs so that there is no time lag between an officer's acquisition of a skill and the moment when that skill is available for consideration in making assignments. While problems of proper officer placement are never-ending, it can be safely said that the Navy's officer qualification classification system provides a fundamentally sound mechanism for getting the right man into the right job.

It should be added that the objective of the officer classification program is not only that of assisting in bringing about proper placement, but is also used constantly in detailing specially qualified officers to special billets as they arise from day to day. Naturally, for security reasons, it would be impossible to discuss specific officer assignments which have been based on a selective use of the classification system. Suffice it to say, however, that the system is so geared that any desired pattern of qualifications needed for any purpose can be produced in a matter of minutes. The officer who knows diesel engines and is familiar with the languages and customs of the residents of Attu—the officer who knows the flora and fauna of a particu-

lar South Sea island and can navigate small craft—the officer who knows all there is to know about a special type of antiaircraft gun and can also speak fluent French—these are samples of the type of demands which might be made on the classification system. Yet the system is so devised that they would present no problems in terms of locating qualified officers.

PROGRAM FOR ENLISTED MEN

THE classification of enlisted men is built around the same essential pattern as that used for officers. The significant differences are in the procedures used to gather, analyse, and record the necessary data. As has been previously indicated, the classification of an enlisted man begins at the point of his induction through the Selective Service system. As he is sent from his local induction center through the Navy Recruiting Office to the basic training station, facts are constantly being gathered which will be useful in determining the type of duty to which he will ultimately be assigned. The focal point in his classification is reached when, during the first days of his basic training, he passes through the Selection Office, one of which has been set up at each naval training station to test, interview, and classify each recruit.

It is this Selection Office which largely determines the part that each individual sailor will play in winning the war. Here the bluejacket is interviewed by thoroughly trained classification interviewers. He goes through a battery of tests designed to measure his general intelligence and such aptitudes as he may have for special duty or training. His employment history is explored and a record is made of various items of qualification, among which are the following:

- Service number
- Name
- Rate
- Branch of service
- Date of enlistment
- Test scores

Date and place of birth
Physical qualifications
Degree and amount of education
Special vocational, technical, or trades training
Occupational background
Service or residence outside of the United States
Qualifications in sports or entertainment fields
Previous military service
Positions of leadership held

It is at this juncture that a recommendation is made as to the general direction which the man should take in the service. This recommendation is based not only upon the aptitudes shown by the scores achieved in the various tests, but takes into account the man's occupational background and, as far as possible, his own choice as to the type of activity in which he would like to participate in the service. Many times it is recommended that men be sent to service schools for specialized training. In some instances, the man may possess skills which justify the recommendation that he be considered for rating as a petty officer upon his completion of the basic training course, and in still other cases, the man's occupational and general background may be such that he can be considered for immediate commissioning as an officer.

It sometimes happens that a man has skills which indicate his aptitude for rating as a petty officer, but he is judged to be not quite ready for such a rating. In such cases, the man concerned is sent to the fleet as a "striker," which is the Navy's term for an understudy. In every case, the kind and amount of advanced training ordered is geared to the skills and potentialities of the man as he is classified in the Selection Offices.

THE classification made in the basic training station does not end with the initial placement of an enlisted man in an appropriate field of work or in a service school for additional training. Classification specialists trained in interviewing and placement

work have been assigned to various naval activities for the purpose of knowing and recording the in-service "growth" of each man, and in taking steps to bring about his assignment to that point of duty most compatible with the rate of his development as a member of the naval service.

These interviewers are constantly alert to the qualifications of leadership as evidenced by men. The expanding Navy provides ample opportunity for rapid advancement of those men who show aptitude or competence to assume higher responsibilities. It is obviously to the ultimate advantage of both the service and the man to assure that each individual's opportunities for advancement keep pace with his capacities for greater responsibility. Classification procedures must inherently insure that zeal, good work, and personal development do not go unrecognized. From the day of his induction to the day of his discharge, an enlisted man in the Navy is in training and it can be safely said that the only limitations to the extent of his advancement are his own capabilities for assuming higher responsibility.

OF NECESSITY, this discussion of classification procedures must be brief. Space is inadequate to describe the important advances the Navy has made in the development and validation of testing procedures. Nor is it even possible to include some of the more interesting placements which have been brought about as a result of classification.

It is to the credit of the armed services that those in topside policy command have maintained an alertness for advancements in personnel administration, and have not hesitated to install new procedures as rapidly as their worth has been proven. As a result of this policy, the part that qualifications classification has to play in the gigantic placement problems of the military services has, by this time, become well defined. It is due to this policy as well, that the whole classification system of the Navy has been

able to take into account and gear its structure and procedures to the post-war problems of re-employment which will inevitably accompany demobilization.

The research and hard work which has gone into the development of personnel management over the past decade is paying dividends in military administration, and it seems equally likely that many of the techniques which have been developed to meet war needs will find their way into civilian practices after the war. There is every evi-

dence that the Navy will not relax its constant effort to improve its operating personnel procedures, for the contribution that effective personnel management can make to better administration is now clear. As far as classification is concerned, perfection has by no means been achieved. The policies and procedures which have been established, however, provide a solid basis for eventually achieving that elusive ultimate in personnel placement—getting the right man into the right job!

Employee Training in TVA During Wartime Expansion

WILLIAM J. McGLOTHLIN

THE purpose of this article is to relate the part played by the employee training program in converting the Tennessee Valley Authority from a peace-time organization concerned with a long-term program of regional development to an important cog in the nation's primary machinery of war. The personnel problems arising out of this transition have their analogies in many other governmental agencies, federal, state, and local. It is quite reasonable to believe, then, that at least some portions of the employee training program developed at TVA to meet these problems of personal shortages may have applicability in other analogous situations.

It may sharpen the significance of the main theme of the discussion to dwell briefly on the general state of the TVA program at the turn of the current decade. In May, 1940, for example, the construction program of the Authority that had been authorized up to that time was approaching its conclusion. Three dams were still under construction—the Watts Bar Dam, the Fort Loudoun Dam, and the Kentucky Dam, largest in the TVA “family.” Completion of these dams was expected to add another 283,000 kilowatts of capacity to the power sales of 3,630,000,000 kilowatt hours of that year. Most of the high-tension line construction to tie together the power output had also been completed. Production of phosphatic fertilizer had reached 145,000 tons, much of it being used

on demonstration farms in a score of states, and no substantial increases were expected. Research on farm machinery for small farms, food processing, minerals, malaria control, and other problems growing out of the TVA program were progressing normally and evenly.

These and many other activities were the concerns of peace, and to them TVA devoted the energies of some 14,000 employees. Through the Act establishing TVA, and through the thinking of the Authority management, however, ran the constant concern even in peace, with the purposes and requirements of national defense. The Tennessee Valley Authority Act, for example, required TVA to hold the unused part of the chemical plant at Muscle Shoals in “stand-by” condition, ready to throw its effort into its original purpose of manufacturing munitions. The Act also reserved to the federal government the right “in the case of war or national emergency declared by Congress, to take possession of all or any part of the property . . . for the purpose of manufacturing explosives or for other war purposes.”¹

With the fall of France, TVA began to intensify its efforts as an instrument of war. Total war requires total use of resources, and TVA, having set its direction toward the full use of the resources of the Tennessee Valley, found itself firmly established as an agency whose work would be felt in war. Power in undreamed-of quantities would be needed to make sufficient aluminum for planes. New demands for food, wood, ores,

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¹ Public No. 17—73rd Congress, Section 20.

and transportation would arise. To meet these needs, TVA speeded its program and expanded its construction, beginning on August 1, 1940, to build Cherokee Dam on the fastest construction schedule in American history for a comparable hydraulic structure—sixteen months to the closing date. A little over a year later, Douglas Dam was begun on a schedule of precisely one year from the first breaking of land to the closure of the dam. It was completed in 12 months and 19 days.

The construction program of the Authority doubled and tripled until, when Pearl Harbor plunged the nation into war, it became the largest construction program ever undertaken by a single agency—a construction program which *in toto* equaled the size of three Grand Coulee Dams or eight Boulder Dams. Power producing facilities were stepped up at most of the dams already in operation; construction was speeded on the Watts Bar, Fort Loudoun, and Kentucky dams; and construction of eight new dams was begun.

From 14,000, the working force of TVA climbed to 42,000. Power production increased until TVA became the second largest electric power producer in the United States. TVA power reduced from its ores forty percent of the aluminum produced in the United States. The chemical plant at Muscle Shoals, which had not been completed in time for use in World War I, awoke to new life. Under direction of the War Department, a new ammonium nitrate plant was built within the old structures, and out of the plant began to flow the ingredient which, mixed with TNT, becomes the deadly explosive "amatol." Elemental phosphorus began to move to the Army and Navy for smoke screen and incendiary uses. Highly concentrated phosphatic fertilizer went to Britain to increase that nation's food production and thereby lighten the load on shipping. Unused electric furnaces were converted to production of calcium carbide for synthetic rubber.

Other programs, too, felt the urgencies of

war. Research on the process of extracting alumina from clay was speeded; kaolin began to go into insulators on war equipment; construction was begun on river terminals to handle increased river traffic; farms were welded into the Victory Food program; frozen and dried foods from the Valley moved to Britain; information on wood sources and wood industries in the Valley was made available to war agencies.

DIFFICULTIES OF STAFFING

MAJOR responsibility for staffing the Authority during this period of rapid expansion fell upon the Personnel Department. Although an expansion from 14,000 to 42,000 employees is relatively small compared to the demands for personnel made by such agencies as the War and Navy Departments, the problems of staffing which faced TVA during its expansion were, except for size, the same problems which other larger and smaller governmental agencies have faced. Governmental agencies required to expand their staff facilities to meet war-time demands have all had to cope with a number of continuing problems: losses to the armed services; relatively rigid salary schedules which, in the middle and upper brackets, at least, are relatively lower than those in private industry; and, in some cases, rigid legal requirements governing methods of appointment. In addition, all agencies have suffered in common from an increasingly restricted labor market.

Recruitment of trained personnel was, of course, the major method of staffing on which TVA relied. Responsibility for recruitment was decentralized as rapidly and as completely as possible so that personnel officers at the construction projects made offers to, and approved appointments of, all trades and labor employees and of technical, clerical, and administrative employees for positions up through the \$3500 entrance salary level. All normal recruitment channels were used. In addition, employment interviews were sometimes given to groups rather than individuals. Application blanks for labor jobs

were placed in rural mail boxes near the projects. Labor unions were asked to assist. Special trips to centers of labor supply were made. This speed-up in the recruiting program was sufficiently successful, for example, to place new employees on the Cherokee Dam project at the rate of one man every seven minutes until the job was completely staffed.

NEED FOR TRAINING

FORTUNATELY, the expansion of TVA started early enough to make possible recruitment of a large number of qualified employees. As the nation's war program moved forward, however, the Authority began to experience the same stringencies that have affected all agencies and industries. Selective Service demands increased until, by June 1943, over 10,000 TVA employees had left for the armed services. Turnover began to rise equally fast. Resignations grew from 2 per cent a month in 1941 to 9 per cent a month two years later. The ratio of refusals to appointment offers—a measure of recruitment difficulty—increased from a range of 20 to 39 per cent in 1941, to a range of 26 to 53 per cent in 1943. And over the whole picture lay the probable loss of all physically fit men of military age.

None of these circumstances was unusual, of course; all were duplicated elsewhere. The significant factors lay in the variety of new functions assigned to the Authority—such as the manufacture of synthetic ammonia and ammonium nitrate, elemental phosphorus, and carbide—all of which were dependent upon new skills and abilities, and the necessity for rapidly expanding the supply of skilled men and women to meet needs of the engineering and construction program.

Training needs, therefore, were quite easily defined. They arose from two sources. First, there was such a large number of employees needed in the various fields of the Authority's work that the supply of those who were up to peace-time standards of experience and training was far short of the

demand. Training was utilized to preserve these standards as far as possible, so that the work of the Authority could be prosecuted as efficiently during war time as during peace. Second, new skills were needed—skills having no parallels outside the Authority. Thus the difficulty arose not in defining training needs, but in satisfying them. It was only through the recruitment and training of potentially able persons that those needs could be met.

TRAINING APPRENTICES AND OPERATORS

THE Tennessee Valley Authority had made employee training a part of its program of personnel administration from the beginning, and this program had been constantly sharpened in focus until it had been brought into a close relationship with the problems of recruitment and placement. As an illustration, the training of craft apprentices for construction work on the dams had begun in 1936 and had subsequently been refined and improved. Careful job analyses had been prepared for all the crafts, and the various craft functions had been broken down into subdivisions against which were set the number of hours of experience required for mastery of each phase of the craft. Related class work, held on the apprentices' own time, for 144 hours a year, supplemented the experience and training available on the job. Expansion of apprenticeship training followed immediately upon the expansion of the Authority's program. At the beginning of 1941, 185 apprentices were in training. A year and a half later almost exactly twice that number—368, to be exact—were in training. Three hundred and twelve apprentices have graduated into journeymanship and a number of these have been rapidly promoted to foreman. Their comparatively rapid promotion was due in part to the fact that, as the supply of craft journeymen outside the Authority declined, apprentices who had completed their training were normally better qualified than newly employed journeymen. This number of 312 apprentice graduates corresponds to

approximately 10 per cent of the 2,700 journeymen employed on all TVA work.

A similar program had been in operation since 1936 for training generator plant operators. It was recognized that the new hydro plants being constructed by the Authority would have to be staffed by persons trained within the Authority, since all the plants represented new generating capacity. A carefully formulated program of training was worked out over a period of years whereby high school graduates (later eighth grade graduates) without operating experience were brought into the hydroplants and were trained for operating or substation positions by observation and instruction on the job, supplemented by special correspondence lessons. Here again the war expansion of the TVA program caused expansion of training. Normally, approximately thirty students were kept in training. As the program expanded, however, this number was increased to about fifty. Seventy-five students have graduated to operator positions in the past five years. Since the hydro plants are now staffed with approximately three hundred and fifty operators, the training program has supplied nearly one-fourth of the operators needed.

Since training programs for apprentices and student operators had already been in operation before the war, expansion of this program was all that was required to keep up with the intensified needs. At the chemical works at Muscle Shoals, Alabama, however, the situation was somewhat different. Here a number of operators in the phosphate plant had received training under an informal plan whereby they were placed under close supervision and gradually assumed the full responsibilities of their positions. When the War Department requested TVA to build and operate an ammonium nitrate plant, it became clear that a large program of training would be necessary to staff the new plant as soon as it was constructed. Positions in the phosphate plant were analyzed and their functions determined. At the same time determination was also made of the length

of time it would take to master the duties of each position. Lines of promotion were drawn, and related study defined.

Early in 1941 the training plan was begun. One hundred and forty-two employees were placed in training for higher positions. No special trainee positions were established, but along with executing the responsibilities of his present position, each employee in training began to learn the responsibilities of the next higher position. He was instructed on the job during scheduled work hours and attended classes on his own time, looking forward to the time when he would be accredited as having attained the qualifications required by the next higher position. When the ammonium nitrate plant was completed, some of the employees in the higher positions in the phosphate plant were transferred to the new plant and other phosphate plant employees moved up. More recently the training program has been extended to cover the mining and processing field plant, the ammonium nitrate plant itself, the carbide plant, and the synthetic ammonia plant. Since the beginning of the program, 732 employees have been trained and examined for higher positions, and about 725 operators are now in training.

CENTRAL TRAINING SCHOOLS

MOST of the training described thus far takes place on the job itself. It utilizes skilled employees as instructors of those to be trained. It supplements such job instruction by related study conducted either in class groups or individually by lessons. The related study parallels experience and training gained on the job and is immediately applicable to that work.

In several other fields, however, TVA found it necessary to speed the processes of training in the background information and skills required to do a job by establishing central schools where these elements were provided in a concentrated form. This technique was essential: (1) where the need for additional personnel was so great that it approached or exceeded the number of persons

already trained; (2) where speed of training was of prime importance; or (3) where the subject matter or skills could not be learned on the job. The central training schools for public safety officers, typists and stenographers, and engineering draftsmen, each of which is described hereafter, illustrate this training method.

Public Safety Officers. The three factors mentioned in the foregoing paragraph were present in the public safety service, for it was necessary that this service be rapidly transformed into a police force to protect TVA property from possible sabotage. The service expanded from about three hundred employees to more than eight hundred. During the first part of the expansion, a training program was established in which experienced employees trained those who had been recently employed. The service expanded so rapidly, however, that at several projects there were more new positions than old. A solution was found in a central public safety officers' school in which instructors from various public safety officer posts gave all background information of general concern.

Training at the central school included lectures on police tactics, TVA policies, methods of surveillance and arrest, methods of combatting sabotage, note-taking and reports, and practice in the use of firearms. At first the school covered one month of full-time training, but as the need increased still further, it was reduced to two weeks. Employees who completed the school successfully were assigned to posts and continued in training status for another six weeks. During that time the information and skills attained at the school were applied to the local situation under the guidance of experienced officers. Over nine hundred public safety officers have been trained in the central school since its establishment.

Typists and Stenographers. Special schools were also established for typists and stenographers. Here again it became quickly apparent that trained stenographers and typists could not be recruited in adequate numbers

and that the normal methods of training would not suffice. Formerly the TVA depended on the training given to stenographers and typists in high schools, business schools, and colleges and universities, but these sources could no longer provide sufficient numbers to meet TVA needs. Full-time training for stenographers and typists who, although having partial qualifications, did not meet TVA standards, was established early in 1941. Instead of trying to find persons meeting the TVA standard typing speed of 43 net words per minute, TVA recruited for typist training persons who could achieve a speed of at least 40 gross words per minute, regardless of errors. Persons selected for stenographic training could already meet shorthand requirements, but were not qualified in typing.

Four training centers were established, and trainers were placed in these centers on a full-time basis for a minimum of two weeks or a maximum of three months. They were given practice assignments on TVA work to build up typing speeds and accuracy and, after achieving minimum standards, they were placed on temporary assignment in TVA offices to obtain experience under actual work conditions. Periodic tests were given to check on progress. Approximately three hundred typists and stenographers have been trained since the initiation of this program.

Engineering Draftsmen. Training for draftsmen in TVA illustrates a training program being molded under increasing pressure for trained personnel. In 1940, TVA established a training program to supply junior engineering draftsmen whom it had heretofore recruited from among college engineering graduates. Apprentice engineering draftsmen were drawn from male citizens who, following high school graduation, had completed a special drafting training course given by vocational schools of the area in accordance with suggestions from TVA. After the completion of training, those selected by TVA were placed on a probationary basis as apprentice engineering

draftsmen, and for three months received in-service training and specialized work assignments.

This plan of training and recruitment satisfied TVA needs until the spring of 1942, although the number of draftsmen obtained was rapidly declining. Sharply increased needs for cartographic draftsmen had developed, since loss of men to the armed services had accelerated and the amount of mapping had rapidly increased. The TVA therefore established its own drafting school, eliminating the requirement of previous drafting training. Persons selected were employed as under-engineering draftsmen and were placed in full-time training under a TVA draftsman-instructor who used both practice assignments and lectures as a means of developing the required knowledge and skills. Some productive work was done during the training period of three months, but it was chosen primarily in terms of how well it would fit into the training program, rather than how important it was from a production standpoint. A detailed analysis of the knowledge and information needed for junior engineering draftsmen on cartographic work was made and an individual progress chart was set up for each trainee. This chart indicated the number of hours required on each phase of the work and became the control by which assignments were made to each trainee. At the end of the three-month period the trainees were placed in positions as junior engineering draftsmen, from which several have been rapidly promoted. About seventy-five draftsmen, all women, have been trained under this program, and ten additional trainees are being recruited.

✓ TRAINING CLASSES FOR PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

TRAINING programs thus far described are largely those concerned with trades and labor employees or employees engaged in semi-professional work. Since the duties of these positions do not require long technical training, the necessary background in-

formation can be given either as a supplement to job instruction or in concentrated form through the medium of a centralized school. For professional positions, however, considerable technical information is necessary. The main training objective in professional fields is not to provide the total technical content, but rather to orient the professionally trained employee in the application of his knowledge to an actual work situation or to supplement his background information with training on special phases required for fully efficient performance. Most of the professional training in TVA has been conducted through classes, which are often developed by the universities and colleges of the area, although some are developed directly by TVA. The great majority meet after work hours and participation in them is voluntary. Successful completion of courses is recognized by a training participation report which is made a part of the employee's file as a certification of increased qualifications.

Because TVA's work is highly varied, the courses provided are also highly varied. Considerable expansion in their number and subject matter occurred as the TVA program expanded, for not only were new functions constantly being added, but the general level of new employees being selected possessed less experience in their fields. In a typical month (March 1943), 126 classes in engineering, physical sciences, management, health and safety, plant protection, stenographic and clerical work, custodial work, craft theory, and such general subjects as effective writing and political science, were being attended by 1,487 TVA employees.

The subjects were many and diversified; they ranged all the way from lettering practice to hydro-electric power studies and symmetrical components, from physical chemistry to the design of electric furnaces, from warehousing to administrative legislation and adjudication, from first aid to safety engineering, from fire training to federal espionage and sabotage laws, from

filing to dictation, from janitor classes to building custodial services, from diesel engines to substation construction, from public speaking to effective writing. The greatest number of classes for professional employees have been in the fields of engineering and management, with a lesser number in the physical sciences. Through management or through training committees appointed by management, the subject matter of the classes is defined. Very often the instructor comes from among the employees themselves. Every effort is made to relate the classes to the work being done during the day.

OTHER TRAINING DEVICES

IN ADDITION to the projects already described, the over-all training program also embraces several other activities. For example, a few special training plans have been developed in the field of management. One of these—that of personnel assistant—has already been described in *Public Personnel Review*.² A similar plan for public management assistants was developed to provide orientation in the work of the Authority for young graduates of public administration schools. Under this plan the employee moves through several of the auxiliary service and operating departments of the Authority, working on immediate administrative problems and actions in each department, doing considerable outside reading, and finally being placed in work most suited to his qualifications. Only four persons were employed under this plan, although it has been revised recently and four additional persons are to be brought in. The plan has successfully met its objectives. One assistant is now working on administrative analysis; another is working on budget analysis; and a third is an assistant in the office of the General Manager. The fourth is in the armed services. The planned experience with which these men began their work with the Au-

thority has given each of them special advantage in understanding the wide variety of the Authority's work.

Training conferences have been used to some extent, although not as much as work-experience training plans accompanied by related class work. Three series of training conferences were held for foremen in the chemical works. Regular foreman conferences for work assignments and review of job progress are held on all projects and into these certain materials on personnel forms and actions have been inserted. A conference for high ranking administrative personnel has been operating since the latter part of 1942. Under rotating chairmanship of the members, the group has concerned itself largely with matters of interdivisional relationships and relationships with outside agencies.

A few manuals have been developed as aids to training. This was particularly true in connection with stenographic and clerical training, where the stenographic manual is used to establish standards and to maintain uniform quality of work. A handbook is distributed to all new salaried employees, providing general orientation in the Authority's policies and work. A foreman's manual for use of construction projects, transmission line construction, and chemical plant operation is in preparation, and it is expected that this manual will be used as the basis of foremen conferences at all locations.

TRAINING ADMINISTRATION

FUNDAMENTALLY, employee training is considered a responsibility of management. The training staff, as well as the training officers attached to personnel offices, are guided in defining needs and developing training activities by the needs and desires of management. Training becomes a technique with which to solve personnel problems in recruitment, placement, supervisor-employee relations, and employee morale. It is obviously not the only technique utilized, but where the needs develop among a group, training has its place. Training

² See George F. Gant and Henry C. Hart, "The TVA Program for Developing Personnel Staff Replacements," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1942, pp. 265-71.

officers act as staff to management in the development of training activities to meet such needs; however, no effort is made to "take over" the activities developed. Management approves activities conducted during work hours, and reviews the work of classes conducted after work hours.

Staff supervision of the training program has been largely in the hands of two training officers on the training staff in the central Personnel Office, Knoxville. This staff has responsibility for standards of training, approval of training plans and the development of training plans to be applied uniformly throughout the Valley. It provides technical assistance to the field personnel offices who have the immediate responsibility for developing training activities. The staff responsibility was divided on the basis of clientele, one member dealing with training for craft employees, the other for semi-professional and professional employees.

A training officer in the personnel office at each major location stimulates and develops training activities. The training officer normally has had training and experience in the field of vocational education and is therefore primarily qualified in the field of craft training. He has mastered the techniques of job analysis, instructional method, and administration of vocational education. He often has other personnel assignments along with his responsibilities for training activities, and the hope is that the training function can eventually be discharged through all members of the personnel office rather than through a single individual. At present, however, the training officer develops and supervises training activities, maintains records on trainees, prepares course outlines and instructional materials, selects and trains instructors, and in general is responsible for the operation of the training program at his location.

EMPLOYEE unions also play an important part in the development and administration of training activities. Since this subject has been treated at length else-

where, it need only be mentioned here.³ Recognized employee unions which have attained the right of exclusive representation participate in the administration of formal training plans developed for the units they represent. For example, the training program for public safety officers and sergeants is administered by a joint training committee composed of representatives of management and the Public Safety Service Employees' Union. The same type of administration guides the apprenticeship program, the hydro plant and steam plant programs, the chemical operator program, and the chemical laboratory technician program. Union responsibility for training programs is discharged through representatives who are chosen by the union and who are, therefore, responsible to the union membership.

Finally, cooperating educational agencies share responsibility for training programs in TVA. Every effort is made to merge the TVA training program with the area program of vocational education. Classes for craft employees are normally developed under the supervision and control of the several state departments of education through their divisions of vocational education, and meet the standards of the state vocational education plans. Instructors are paid from state funds. Professional training classes are normally developed under the Engineering, Science and Management War Training program of the United States Office of Education, administered through colleges and universities of the area. The Federal Committee on Apprenticeship reviews and approves apprenticeship policies. Relationships with state apprenticeship councils in North Carolina and Kentucky are being developed. It is expected that apprentices employed by the Authority will be registered with these agencies so that they will become a part of state programs.

³ See W. J. McGlothlin, "Union-Management Administration of Employee Training," *Advanced Management*, April-June, 1943, pp. 38-44.

RESULTS OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

RESULTS of training are not always easily measured, particularly in the professional field where training adds to qualifications already present rather than develops all required qualifications. An immediate evaluation of the TVA program lies in the fact that trained personnel were made available to satisfy needs that could not be satisfied by recruitment alone. There was no place to find 75 trained junior engineering draftsmen, or 312 journeymen, or 75 hydro plant operators, or 75 laboratory technicians, or 732 chemical plant operators, or 900 public safety officers. Recruitment officers have stated time and again that without the training program the problem of staffing the Authority adequately through these difficult times would have been almost impossible. Management's willingness to use time during work hours for related training is another indication that the program was getting results in terms of building dams and making munitions. Other evidence comes from reports of supervisors that persons completing training are better qualified than the majority of persons recruited in the same field from outside the Authority.

CONCLUSIONS

THE training programs described in this article do not take into account the immense body of training conducted informally by supervisors on the job. Obviously the bulk of training in any organization goes on daily between supervisor and employee. It is clear, however, that where needs have been critical, specially planned training programs have been an important and useful administrative method. By means of employee training the Authority has been able to meet personnel needs in certain crucial areas much more nearly than would otherwise have been possible.

Some conclusions can be drawn from TVA's experience with employee training during war. Training programs are, fundamentally, planned experience. Moreover,

the planning is directed at organizing the experience in ways that will develop useful qualifications rapidly and effectively. Thus, at least a small staff trained in the techniques of employee training is necessary to provide assistance in such planning of experience. The size of this staff will vary somewhat according to the size of the agency. In the smaller agencies training responsibilities can be joined with other responsibilities, but some special staff assistance to management is needed. Sound training must be governed by job analyses which define in detail the functions to be performed. Practice assignments, study, and work-experience must then be related to these functions in proper learning order and in proper extent if the trainee is to achieve the expected qualifications in the minimum amount of time. Planning of this sort requires staff attention. Actual conduct of the training after it has been planned and established can be turned over to management, with only periodic review conducted beyond that point.

Staff assistance in employee training should be identified and integrated with staff assistance available in the general field of personnel administration. Training results are closely allied with the over-all functions of personnel administration, for the needs which training assists in meeting are needs which are at least in part the concern of the personnel agency—recruitment, placement, promotion, and employee-management relationships. Although less directly related, employee training also affects such subjects as testing, retirement, compensation and classification. The TVA for a time provided staff assistance in employee training through a separate line organization, but it found that a merging of staff assistance on training with staff assistance on personnel administration placed the training program on a firmer base—one from which it could contribute more directly to the major objectives of the organization. Unless this is done there may be a tendency to focus employee training on professional develop-

ment of employees rather than on personnel needs of the organization.

As planned experience, training can be useful without regard to the number of employees participating. "Breaking in" new employees is a recurring responsibility of any organization, intensified in times of rapid turnover, easing off in times of stable employment. If that period is planned so that the experiences necessary to adjust a new employee to the work of the organization are provided, full production can be reached rapidly. Training can often assist recruitment, since an opportunity to enter an organized program tends to attract higher calibre applicants than the mere offer of a similar position without opportunity for training. Furthermore, a policy of promotion from within can be made effective while high standards of performance are maintained only if adequate training opportunities are available. An employee may remain at one level in an organization for years without attaining satisfactory qualifications for higher grade work unless he obtains opportunities to master knowledge and skills required at the higher level. Finally, organized training contributes toward developing a stimulating sense of profession by emphasizing the need for increasing mastery of the employee's subject field.

EMPLOYEE training should use all the support that it can find among educational institutions and among employee organizations. Educational institutions have had useful experience in the field of training and often can supply funds, instructors, and library and laboratory facilities through which training programs can be conducted. A training officer can relate efforts of such institutions to needs of the agency. Many institutions are willing to modify requirements on prerequisites, hours, and so on, particularly if academic credit is not sought. Certainly in TVA's program the support of the various state departments of education in the area, the vocational schools, the Fed-

eral Committee on Apprenticeship, and the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training program has been of great benefit.

Participation of employee unions also has distinct value. Unions may have a negative approach to employee training if they look upon it as a threat to job security or other legitimate interests of their own. When, however, they participate in administration of training, not only does the negative approach transform itself into positive assistance, but the unions contribute significant information on what the jobs are, how they may best be learned, what qualifications are required to do them, and what are the best methods of performing the work. Furthermore, they accept responsibility for explaining and justifying training policies and procedures to their membership. These all contribute to the success of training programs.

FUTURE TRAINING NEEDS

IT IS much too early to foresee the place of training in TVA after the war is over. TVA construction is already past its peak. The number of employees has declined from 42,000 to 28,000. In various fields, however, further needs for training are apparent and preliminary plans are now being made. State Divisions of Vocational Rehabilitation are assisting TVA in looking forward to the reemployment and retraining of personnel returning from the armed services because of casualties. Training in the solution of other administrative problems developing from the return of men in the armed services will also be needed. Readjustment of personnel to changed duties and organization will be required. When the war is over, training can again be pointed toward breadth rather than specialization. Educational leave, for example, which has been impossible during this war period, can again become a useful training method. The wide expansion of training during war has proved the merit of planned experience as a means of developing personnel. That proof will continue to be valid during times of peace.

The Responsibility Distribution Chart: A Classification and Administrative Analysis Tool

JOHN J. KENNEDY AND FRANK J. WALDENFELS

WHEN the United States Housing Authority was established in 1937, the organization had to be put together almost overnight. A staff was engaged, responsibilities were assigned, procedures were established, and the organization was set in motion. A great deal was accomplished by this hastily assembled team, but as time went on, changes occurred—changes in personnel, in functions, in procedures, and in the informal organization by which the staff worked together. These internal realignments created problems of responsibility relationships. With an organization of highly specialized and yet closely related functions, this was inevitable. As in the case of many other organizations, pay problems arose, which were in large measure a symptom of the need for responsibility clarification.

A thoroughgoing classification survey was undertaken by the Housing Authority in 1940 to solve these problems. Organizational, functional, and process charts were available, well-conceived and well-executed, but these were inadequate for the purpose of showing the complex flows of responsibility

through the organization. A new technique of analysis and presentation was needed. This led to the development of a charting system which was not only successful in satisfying its original purpose, but proved to be extremely useful in ways which were originally unforeseen by its creators. This was probably due to the utter simplicity of the idea. Being so elementary, it could fit into many different situations encountered in administrative management.

The "Responsibility Distribution Chart," as this device is called, is merely a graphic presentation of the division of work within an organization in terms of specific functions performed and the participation of each position contributing to the accomplishment of the work operations. It is based on the idea of systematic accounting for responsibility through the medium of a flow chart. The method consists of listing all work functions of a unit in the left-hand column of a chart, showing* in subsequent columns the exact responsibility of each position which participates in the process.¹

The Responsibility Distribution Chart is not a substitute for a position description; it is a summary representation of the division of responsibility. It does not reveal the difficulty elements which characterize the individual positions, nor does it indicate the evaluation of positions in terms of any par-

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¹ A hypothetical Responsibility Distribution Chart accompanies this article to serve as an illustration of the over-all format and content of the device.

ticular standards. It does provide a perspective of the total work operation, and must be complemented by individual position descriptions, just as the individual position descriptions cannot stand by themselves, as representing isolated entities, but must be complemented by the general layout of responsibility.

Originated purely as a tool for dealing with position classification, the chart soon disclosed a greater usefulness. From the very beginning, it made relations with operating officials easier. Several of them stated that for the first time they understood position classification and what it sought to do in defining and measuring responsibility. Previously, they had not been able to understand clearly what a "position" was, as distinguished from an incumbent employee. Now they could see it as a definite segment of responsibility for the performance of work operations. From thinking only in terms of organization chart boxes and lines, which were often more misleading than helpful in depicting work relationships, they turned to a consideration of "contributions" made by the various participants in the operations. Immediately much of the confusion engendered by the use (or misuse) of organization charts disappeared. The fallacy of the idea that the value of a position is automatically derived from its relationship to another position, or from its place in the organization as shown on an organization chart became clearly apparent.²

In addition to visualizing positions more readily by means of the Chart, operating officials also saw responsibilities in terms of contributions to a flow of accomplishment, and almost at once stopped talking about the efficiency of the incumbents, the requirements of the recruiting market as to pay rates, the amount of overtime put in by employees, and other things irrelevant to the

determination of the classification. They were at last "on the beam." As a result the time required for conferences on classification actions was reduced to a fraction of what it had previously been. Supervisors began suggesting ways of delegating responsibility, of developing programs of individual on-the-job training, and of eliminating unnecessary strata of review—all in terms of the pictures of their sections as revealed in the Responsibility Distribution Chart.

It was found by the classification survey staff that the establishment of new units, consolidations, and other adaptations in organization, could be greatly facilitated by laying out the functions and charting the complete flow of responsibility. By so doing they not only provided insurance against gaps of unassigned responsibility, but also clarified the exact accountability of each participant, provided a basis for enabling the individuals participating in the operation to see clearly what each was expected to do, and suggested how that individual's particular talent might be used to better advantage. It furnished an excellent basis for orienting the new employee to the functions of the unit and the parts played by others in the unit.

The budget and planning office of the agency saw at once how the Responsibility Distribution Chart would help them in their own work, and adopted it as a regular tool in connection with organization planning, budget analysis, procedural streamlining, and functional clarification. It was of inestimable assistance in the integration of the housing activities of the United States Housing Authority, the Public Buildings Administration, and the Farm Security Administration when those agencies were brought together in 1942 to form the Federal Public Housing Authority.

Meanwhile, members of the classification survey group were finding that their new tool was yielding additional dividends by making classification work simpler, more certain, and more accurate. In places where the Responsibility Distribution Charts had

² For a treatment of the fallacies of "mechanical organizational parallelism," see *Position-Classification in the Public Service*, in the series of committee reports, "Policies and Practices in Public Personnel Administration." (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941.) pp. 127-28.

RESPONSIBILITY DISTRIBUTION CHART

FUNCTIONS	DIRECTOR OF PERSONNEL	CHIEF OF PLACEMENT	ASSISTANT CHIEF
EXTERNAL RELATIONS	Establishes and maintains relations for support and cooperation.	Maintains relationships primarily on technical matters	
PLANNING AND POLICY DETERMINATION	Interprets policy. Approves plans and policy.	Carries out policy. Recommends changes to Director.	Recommends policy adaptations.
METHODS		Determines technical methods to be added.	Recommends changes in method.
PROCEDURES		Analyzes and determines need for changes.	Recommends and installs changes.
INTERVIEWING CANDIDATES			Interviews for the most important or complex positions.
PREPARING CASE RECORDS			
APPRAISING APPLICATIONS AND CODING			Appraises and codes, as referred to by technicians.
VERIFYING QUALIFICATIONS			Determines adequacy of evidence for rejection.
SELECTING CANDIDATES; DETERMINING SOURCE; RANKING CANDIDATES; CONFERRING WITH APPOINTING OFFICIALS			Selects best qualified and presents to operating officials; obtains reasons for rejections on most important cases.
PREPARING STANDARDS AND INTERVIEW LISTS			Reviews and approves standards statements; reviews and approves interview lists.
FOLLOWING UP PLACEMENT			Reviews recommendations for reference of cases to training and Employee Relations and approves.
STAFF DIRECTION		Selects staff; assigns staff responsibilities; conducts staff meetings.	Supervises technical work; assists in conduct of staff meetings; trains technical staff.
FILING			
RECORD KEEPING			Approves changes in record system.
REPORTING		Reviews and approves reports.	
CONDUCTING CORRESPONDENCE		Dictates correspondence on policy matters.	

FOR A PERSONNEL PLACEMENT SECTION

SENIOR TECHNICIAN	JUNIOR TECHNICIAN	SENIOR CLERK	ASSISTANT CLERK	JUNIOR CLERK
		Gives information on matters where precedent and policy are clearly established.		
Suggests changes in techniques.				
Suggests changes in procedure.		Recommends improvements from clerical point of view to Chief or Assistant.	Suggests changes in clerical procedure.	
Interviews candidates for the more complex and important positions.	Interviews candidates for the less complex and important positions.		Receives applicants; checks routine items.	
Summarizes information for case records.	Summarizes information for case records.	Supervises maintenance of inventory and case records.	Maintains case files.	Files records.
Appraises and codes in complex cases.	Appraises and codes on ordinary cases.			
Makes telephone inquiries; evaluates and interprets non-routine responses and recommends rejections.		Supervises correspondence on form inquiries and replies.	Reviews replies and refers non-routine replies to senior technicians.	Enters information in records.
Selects best qualified and presents to operating officials; obtains reasons for rejections, on more important cases.	Selects on ordinary cases, subject to review of seniors in cases of doubt.			
Analyzes classes of work and translates requirements into market standards and interview questions.	Assists in standards work under close guidance as to method and results.			
Interviews; obtains information on success and satisfaction and utilization of skill; suggests reporting cases of Employee Relations and Training.				
Participates in staff meetings.	Participates in staff meetings.			
		Establishes file system and makes adaptations.	Supervises filing.	Files materials and correspondence.
		Recommends changes in record system.	Maintains records.	
		Supervises preparation of reports.	Compiles reports.	
		Prepares all correspondence not involving technical interpretation, referring to Asst. Chief on departures from established precedent.	Sends out form inquiries.	

been used there were comparatively few requests for reconsideration of allocations made by the survey staff. The treatment of individual transactions was speeded up because positions were described in terms of the actual contributions of the positions to the performance of the processes, and meaningless generalizations tended to disappear. Audits were made easier and more pointed. Review of classification actions was speeded up, since the facts could easily be checked for completeness and consistency, and apparent conflicts were thereby eliminated. The danger of arriving at erroneous conclusions due to inadequate presentation was removed, and the possibility of unfair comparisons with other positions was reduced. Relations with operating personnel were more pleasant, because much of the mystery of the classification process had disappeared. Operating officials no longer felt that classification analysts were trying to find weaknesses in the presentation of individual cases, but began to realize that they were making a systematic effort to credit every segment of responsibility.

FOLLOWING the completion of the Housing Authority survey, the same method was used in classification surveys in the Public Works Administration and Public Roads Administration. In these surveys, every section was charted, using original data provided by employees and supervisors on position description forms. The omissions and apparent inconsistencies in the original data were brought clearly to light in the charts. In many cases the defects found in the charts were true reflections of faulty organization, lack of clarity in relationships, differences of opinion among the operating personnel as to their respective responsibilities, failure to provide for necessary functions, overlapping of activity, duplication of effort, and other features of the work situation which were of major importance to operating supervision and administrative planning. Here was testimony to the truth of Mr. Ismar Baruch's comment re-

garding the Responsibility Distribution technique: "While this method is undoubtedly of great help in the classification process, it should be equally useful in administrative planning and management."

During the course of these surveys, a number of variations in the method were developed. Whereas originally the chart was used to show the distribution of responsibility within a given unit, it became evident that it could also present the distribution among various units participating in a process that flowed through several parts of the organization. Furthermore, it was used to show the relationships of home and field offices. For example, in the Public Roads Administration survey, the responsibility for approving change orders in connection with road and bridge construction was charted to show the extent of responsibility of the several state highway departments, the State Public Roads Administration office, the District and Regional offices, and the Construction Division in Washington.

In a subsequent survey of the Office of the Quartermaster General, War Department, the method attained its most complete development to date. Responsibility Distribution Charts were used to provide an X-ray picture of the work pattern in various parts of the organization to serve as a basis for a comprehensive study of the entire work situation, including functional alignment, the need for operations, clarification of lines of authority, correction of erroneous classification, systematic delegation of work, planned unit training programs, work load analysis, and a study of supervisory-subordinate ratios. In addition, it provided a springboard for a study of procedures by providing a picture of the existing work situation. Finally, the charts were prepared in such a way as to include a summary statement of the background and talents of the incumbent employee of each position. Through the process of checking each employee's talent against the work performed, idle skill was clearly revealed, and led to improved placement of employees.

PREPARATION OF CHARTS

IN PREPARING Responsibility Distribution Charts, the following procedure has been used successfully. Original data from position descriptions and functional charts are posted to the Responsibility Distribution Chart. Each function is broken down into phases sufficiently detailed to make possible a clear distinction among the contributions of the several positions. Detailed information concerning the function is given in the "Functions" column to avoid repetition of wording in the position columns.

After the information is posted it is analyzed for discrepancies, omissions, ambiguities, duplications, and failure to provide or account for necessary operations. It is at this point that the skill of the analyst becomes important—in discovering areas

where responsibility must be clarified. Since original data are likely to be too general to provide a clear picture of the boundaries of each position, the analyst notes items to be developed in conferences with operating officials. After the first conference, when the chart is explained and discussed in its over-all aspects, it has been found helpful to leave it with the operating officials who are directly concerned with its content in order that they may reconcile apparent inconsistencies, plug up gaps in the picture, and possibly consider organizational changes. At this point, the administrative planning technicians may be called in for advice and assistance in improving operational features. After adjustments have been made, the chart is ready for analysis for classification purposes.

Citizen Support of Civil Service in Louisiana

CHARLES P. FENNER JR., AND LENNOX L. MOAK

THE recent adoption of civil service programs covering the Louisiana state service and the municipal service of New Orleans represented much more than a mere public reaction against long-prevailing unsatisfactory conditions in public employment. It was the culmination of a twenty-year campaign to make effective the principles of civil service which had been embodied in the state constitution since 1921.

During that earlier era of reform, an amendment to the constitution had been adopted directing that the legislature enact merit system legislation for cities of the size of New Orleans. In the ensuing years, however, successive legislatures either ignored the mandate or used it as a weapon to club rival political organizations into submission. As time passed and the fervor of reform gave way to the other phases of the recurring cycle—indifference, dictatorship, and corruption—hopes and plans were kept alive against the day when circumstances were once more opportune for the realization of the long-sought goal.

These plans included not only the enactment of laws setting up merit systems for the state and the city of New Orleans, but also called for constitutional validation¹

¹ The constitutional amendment adopted in 1940 not only validated both the state and city acts, but requires a two-thirds vote of each house of the legislature to amend either act.

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as well as subsequent organized protection by interested citizens. This final step called for the development of a strong citizen group drawing support from all political factions but having the sole purpose of protecting the civil service laws from emasculation at the hands of opponents of the merit system. This article is devoted primarily to the description of this citizen group, known as the Louisiana Civil Service League.

MERIT SYSTEM BACKGROUND IN LOUISIANA

IT IS not within the scope of this article to dwell in detail upon the merit system laws of the state; however, a brief resumé of the recent history of civil service legislation will serve to introduce the organization of the Civil Service League and describe the background against which it has operated.

In 1940, then-Governor-elect Jones fulfilled a campaign promise by appointing a committee to draft two civil service bills, one for the state service, the other applicable to "cities having a population of more than 100,000." (The latter, of course, was intended to apply immediately to the city of New Orleans, and perhaps Shreveport and Baton Rouge in the future.) Chairman of the committee was Charles E. Dunbar Jr.,²

² The appointment of Mr. Dunbar, prominent New Orleans attorney, to the chairmanship of this committee was in part a recognition of his long-time efforts in behalf of the merit system in Louisiana. The appointment was also in recognition of Mr. Dunbar's thorough knowledge of civil service legislation. When the state civil service law was subsequently enacted, Mr. Dunbar was appointed chairman of the State Civil Service Commission. He has continually given strong encouragement and support to the formation and development of the Louisiana Civil Service League.

and its several members were highly respected civic leaders from various sections of the state.

The results of the committee's studies were embodied in drafts of two bills which, after final polishing, were submitted to the 1940 session of the legislature. Both bills passed the legislature with only three dissenting votes, and with the Governor's signature, became law.³ A few of the provisions of the laws are unique. Of particular interest is the method of appointment of both the state and city civil service commissions. The state act provides for nomination of five panels of three persons each by the presidents of three private and two public colleges and universities; the Governor then appoints one man from each panel to make up the five-man state Civil Service Commission. Two members of the New Orleans City Civil Service Commission are appointed by the state Civil Service Commission, and the third member is appointed by the City Council.

Aside from these provisions, the general structure of both acts conforms substantially with common provisions of other comparable legislation. In the state service, about 85 per cent of the employees are covered under the law; in the New Orleans city service the exemption of the employees of public schools and some smaller agencies results in a somewhat smaller percentage of coverage than in the state service. The state law requires that incumbent employees pass a qualifying examination to achieve civil service status, and the New Orleans law provides for "blanketing in" incumbent employees.

³ The state civil service law (Act 172 of 1940) originally provided that certain sections were to become effective immediately, the effective date for the remainder of the act being set for July 1, 1942. The purpose of this was to give the Commission legal status during a period of organization and preparation for administration of the law. In a 1942 amendment to the law, the date on which its full provisions became applicable to the state service was changed to January 1, 1943.

The effective date of the New Orleans city civil service law (Act 171 of 1940) was also originally set for July 1, 1942. This, too, was partially postponed to January 1, 1943.

ORGANIZATION AND AIMS OF THE LEAGUE

THE constitutional referendum, to which reference has already been made, was by no means assured of passage. Strongly organized political groups within the state were still determined that effective civil service should not become a reality. To acquaint the electorate with the issues at stake, the Louisiana Civil Service League was formed early in 1940. Its immediate purpose was to conduct a campaign in behalf of the constitutional amendment and to offset effectively the criticisms being leveled at the proposed system.

The long-term aims finally adopted by the Civil Service League may be summarized as follows:

1. To carry on a continuous educational campaign throughout the state on the meaning of the civil service laws and the advantages to be derived by both public employees and the general public;
2. To study the operation of civil service and make recommendations for its improved administration as defects become apparent;
3. To insist militantly upon fair and impartial administration of civil service laws;
4. To protect the civil service laws from attack by those seeking a return to the spoils system.

An indication of the degree to which the League has fulfilled these objectives may be had from the discussion of its work which follows.

Management of the ordinary affairs of the League is vested in an executive committee composed of the Chairman, Secretary, Treasurer, the eight vice-chairmen, and several key members at large. Membership in the League is divided into three classes: (a) active, (b) sustaining, and (c) associate. Active members pay annual dues of one dollar per year; sustaining members are those who make a contribution in addition to the regular annual dues; and the associate membership class is designed to include

those who are willing to support civil service but who do not care to make a cash contribution to the work of the League.⁴

Original plans called for the admission of public employees to the active membership class, and actually for a short while they were admitted. But because the political enemies of civil service might make capital of the annual dues, it was decided by the executive committee that, for the present, it would be best not to include public employees as members. A very successful campaign is now in progress, however, to have public employees indicate their support of League objectives by signing a pledge to that effect and placing it on file with the League.

ONE of the unique features of the organization is the State Advisory Committee, composed of some three hundred leading citizens throughout the state. Some representation is included from each of the sixty-four parishes (counties). The function of this committee is to act as a listening post for the executive committee concerning local developments affecting civil service, and to advise and assist the League in the fulfillment of its objectives in each locality.

The League has found that listing the names and addresses of the full membership of the advisory committee on the League's stationery is particularly effective in showing the calibre and political diversity of its support. In its relations with public officials the League has used the members of the advisory committee to a maximum extent in order that contacts may be made by local citizens known to the officials, rather than by strangers. In the planning of educational campaigns, collection of funds, and in arrangements for speakers, local advisory

⁴ The associate membership class is of major importance in securing a roster of individuals who may be called upon to make talks, write to legislators, or in other manner work toward the objectives of the League. Moreover, a large membership indicates widespread public support of thousands of voters and tends to discourage political attacks upon the laws.

members also constitute the core around which the activity is organized.

The regular paid staff of the League ordinarily consists of an executive secretary, office manager, and such clerical assistance as is needed from time to time on a temporary basis. The first executive secretary had a general legal background, supplemented by specialized study in political science. Ideally, the League has sought a man with broad background in both political science and law as its executive secretary. It was fortunate in securing this combination in its first secretary; but with the disruptions in the organization created by war conditions, it has not been possible to continue to recruit within these standards. At present the position is vacant, as the League has been unable to secure a qualified secretary.

The functions of the staff are similar to those of other organizations of this type: fact-finding, coordination of various phases of the program; planning; distribution of educational literature;⁵ and keeping of the financial records.

Early in the League's organizational period, a Speakers Bureau was established for the purpose of providing informed speakers on the merit system for any group interested in civil service or willing to schedule one of the League's speakers at one of its meetings to explain the merit system. The major activity in this respect came, of course, during the campaign for the adoption of the civil service constitutional amendment in November of 1940. Since that time, the activities of the Speakers Bureau have been less intense, but it has continued as an effective unit of the League. During the first two and one-half years of the League's existence, audiences with an aggregate of approximately seventy-five thousand persons were addressed by the seventy-odd

⁵ In handling large mailings or unusual amounts of routine clerical jobs, the League has been fortunate in securing large numbers of volunteers from among its members as temporary office assistants. The use of this volunteer personnel has enabled the League to operate upon a substantially lower budget than would have otherwise been possible.

speakers of the Bureau. In its numerous radio programs the League has also relied heavily upon the Speakers Bureau.

Beginning in 1941, the League has sought to organize local units throughout Louisiana. This program of organization of parish committees or parish leagues has met with considerable success. At present such units exist in most of the more populous parishes of the state, and a program is now under way to complete this task. Indications are that units will be organized in each of the sixty-four parishes in Louisiana before the close of 1943.

These units proved quite effective in articulating local sentiment for civil service; they particularly demonstrated their value in 1942, when civil service was under attack in the legislature. The existence of such local organizations did much to convince recalcitrant legislators that in opposing civil service they were incurring the ill-will of large numbers of the more influential of their local constituents.

THE financial support of the League has been most widespread and gratifying. An ever-increasing portion of the League's funds are being raised through active membership dues; for the present, however, most of the support is still derived from the sustaining members who contribute more than the annual one-dollar membership fee. Although the League could have secured sufficient support from a relatively small number of sources, the policy has been to secure somewhat smaller contributions from as large a number of interested citizens as possible. The benefits derived from this policy are obvious: The withdrawal of support by a small number of supporters can at no time seriously embarrass the League financially, and through a broader base of membership and contribution list, a larger group is brought into active participation in the affairs of the League. Thus far the League, while not enjoying any large surplus, has been able to plan with reasonable financial security in developing its program.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF THE LEAGUE

IN ADDITION to the general enlightenment of the public as to the advantages to be realized by a properly administered civil service program, the League has three major accomplishments to its credit: (1) adoption of the constitutional amendment; (2) successful defense of the civil service acts before the courts; and (3) defense of the civil service against a determined attack in the 1942 legislature. Each of these is of major importance and deserves some attention as to the methods employed and the use made of each of the parts of the League's organization.

Although both the civil service laws and the joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment were adopted by very substantial majorities in the 1940 legislature, it soon became apparent that many of those who voted for these measures were determined that they should be defeated at the polls in the November elections. In Louisiana, the autumn general elections are for the most part a necessary formality having little practical importance.⁶ The vote is ordinarily very light, consisting largely of the professional political vote with a moderate sprinkling of ballots cast by conscientious citizens who take the trouble to analyze the numerous constitutional amendments submitted for their action.

In the November elections of 1940, citizens were called on to pass upon twenty-eight separate proposed amendments to the state constitution, in addition to choosing between Democratic and Republican candidates for office. Forces opposed to the reform administration of Governor Jones sought to defeat all twenty-eight amendments as a means of demonstrating that reform government was not popular in the state, even though some of the amendments definitely were not in any manner concerned with the alignment of political forces in the state.

⁶ As in several other Southern states, the traditional strength of the Democratic Party in Louisiana divests general elections of much of their theoretically bipartisan character. With few exceptions, the outcome of elections to office is decided at party primaries.

In attempting to meet this situation, the League was faced with a two-fold difficulty: First, it had to try to get as many people as possible to the polls in order that a fair expression of public opinion might be had; and secondly, it had to try to convince the voter that, whatever his general attitude toward other amendments might be, he should vote for the civil service amendment. Into this effort the League threw its full strength. It used its Speakers Bureau on every possible occasion. Through its advisory committee it sought the support of every newspaper in the state and favorable resolutions from as many organizations as possible in every community. Radio time was made available and many talks to the radio audience were made. Literature was prepared by the staff and officers of the League and distributed throughout the state. Public statements favoring the adoption of the civil service amendment were secured from as many political leaders of all factions as possible.

No means existed whereby the effect of each of these several steps might be measured; but when the ballots were counted, a sufficient number of the electorate had become civil-service-conscious to give that amendment substantial majority at the polls—even though several of the other amendments were defeated.

THE attack at the polls having failed, the next assault on the civil service program was in the courts of the state, the suit against civil service being one of a large number against the major reforms adopted in 1940. The defense of civil service in this instance illustrates the close cooperation with, and service to, the state civil service department which the League has rendered. In addition to being represented by the office of the Attorney General, the Department of State Civil Service was represented gratuitously by Messrs. Charles E. Dunbar Jr. and Monte M. Lemann as members of the League. These attorneys were assisted by many other attorneys of the League in the preparation

of their case. Inasmuch as the very life of the merit system in Louisiana was at stake in this case, the League took two principal steps:

1. Through its advisory committee it secured the services of eighteen lawyers from all sections of the state who undertook to aid and assist in the research and preparation of the case in the defense of the merit system laws. Each lawyer was assigned a particular point or points in the case. He then briefed the point and prepared memoranda of authorities for the use of the two principal attorneys.

2. Thirteen leading independent civic organizations of the state were induced to join with the Civil Service League in filing *amicus curiae* briefs with the Supreme Court in support of the civil service laws. This co-operative action added considerable prestige to the cause of civil service throughout the state and provided means of giving additional emphasis to many of the points being argued in the case.

The civil service laws were upheld in both the lower court and in the Supreme Court, and all constitutional questions with respect to these laws have been permanently set at rest.⁷

LACK of success, however, did not put a stop to efforts to cripple the civil service program. Although defeated at the polls in 1940 and balked by the verdict of the Supreme Court in 1941, those favoring the return of the spoils system to the state made another determined effort during the 1942 session of the legislature to emasculate civil service. The attack took several forms: outright repeal, delay of effective date for the duration, reduction in appropriation below the critical point, and amendment of other provisions which would interfere with its operation.

Anticipating this attack, the League had gone forward with its organization on the

⁷ For a discussion of the Supreme Court decision on the case, see the "Court Decisions" section of *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1942, pp. 145-46.

parish level and at the same time had done considerable research into the public and private stand which had been taken by the members of the legislature—particularly their pledges in favor of the merit system. When the legislature met, there also began a well-organized educational program directed at members of the legislature concerning the operation of civil service. Members of the League and officers of the State Civil Service Department tirelessly explained, answered questions, and demonstrated how the merit plan would operate.

Outside Baton Rouge, the League used its Advisory Committee and its local parish organizations to keep members of the legislature advised of the sentiment in their districts favoring civil service. Civic organizations throughout the state adopted appropriate resolutions and forwarded them to the legislature. Again legislators were reminded of the many organizations and groups of citizens who had at numerous times indicated their full support of civil service. The Governor likewise continued his consistent support of the merit system and recommended to the legislature the adoption of an adequate appropriation for the State Civil Service Department.

Again the combination of these various forces was sufficient. The civil service laws were amended only on those points which had been approved by the state civil service department and the League.

PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

HAVING achieved its initial aims through the enactment of the civil service laws and protection against attack at the polls, in the courts, and in the legislature, the League is now turning to the accomplishment of some of its other objectives. One of the principal of these will be the convincing of employees that civil service is here to stay and that no longer does their continued employment depend upon their political servitude to any political faction. This objective is in the process of realization, but much must yet be done to

demonstrate fully the potency of civil service protection to the public employee body, many members of which have been misinformed regarding the true nature of civil service.

The League must see that both rights of employees and the public are protected in all instances. Under some conditions, for example, it may be necessary to assist an employee in the proper presentation of his case before either the state or city civil service commission in order that the commission may have the full facts before it. In this connection the League will need to keep itself informed on all appeals which are made to the respective personnel directors and commissions in order that it may answer questions from officials and the public concerning the operation of the civil service laws in such instances.

Another major activity of the future will be to ascertain prior to election which candidates for the legislature and for the governorship favor and which oppose the continuation of an effective merit system in the state. This is being done in preparation for the forthcoming campaign, which will reach its culmination in the Democratic primary of January, 1944. The League plans to report fully to the electorate the position of every candidate and to seek the election of only those pledged to the support of the objectives of the League.

Among the more important internal problems yet to be resolved is just how public employees will participate in the management of the League's affairs and the prosecution of its objectives. Inasmuch as public employees may not at present attain membership in the League, this poses a rather difficult situation; however, efforts are being made to find a workable solution.

Regardless of the many problems yet to be solved, sufficient support is now marshalled in favor of civil service that its future in Louisiana is believed assured. The members of the Louisiana Civil Service League intend to devote their continuing efforts as a guarantee to that effect.

Word Usage in Position-Classification

ROSS POLLOCK

THIS article has to do with words. Classification men already know of the existence of many of the concepts presented here. However, since these concepts are seldom fully used in practical everyday work and since they have not been expressed in the parlance of personnel literature, they are set forth here in the language of personnel men and for their convenience.

INTENTION AND MEANING

WORDS derive their meanings from the context. Not only are they modified by adjectives, adverbs, position in a sentence, and all the other elements which together make up the rules of syntax, but they are also modified by the intent of the speaker or writer. Consider, for example, the sentence: "Smith is in the same class that I am." One classification man using this sentence may mean that Smith's position and his own have been allocated to the same position class; another may mean that Smith and he are members of the same group studying classification.

Classification men who review position-description sheets soon become aware of the effect of an individual's attitude and thinking upon the meaning of the words which he uses. An employee preparing a job description for his own position and realizing that his salary may be affected by his efforts, usually brings in as many factors as possible tending to show his position to be one of importance. As he writes, a motivation of

pride may supplement this salary motivation. He wants the position to seem significant to his friends, to his fellow employees, to himself. His satisfaction with life becomes bound up in this significance. If he is a messenger boy, he may believe that the functioning of a whole division depends ultimately upon the performance of his work.

These basic motivations affect men who write job descriptions, and they are largely inescapable. It is of considerable moment whether the writer is striving to be honest and analytical in the task of portraying his duties, or whether he is modest, conservative, careless, or lackadaisical. Job descriptions necessarily are affected by the writer's feeling of security and the condition of his ego. Supervisors, of course, are as subject to these motivations as any subordinate. Their review of job sheets, which in theory give a more objective appraisal of duties and responsibilities may, therefore, either correct for bias or compound an initial distortion.

It is true, of course, that some officials or employees deliberately falsify job sheets. In such cases, words are colored and meanings affected. When closely similar duties and responsibilities are described in vastly different terms by two officials, one of whom is prejudiced against women and another who sees no problem in employing them, the classifier must understand the motivation of each in order to arrive at a fair evaluation of the job. He does not, fortunately, need to determine exactly where prejudice leaves off and fabrication begins.

A corollary to the proposition, "words de-

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rive their meaning from the context," is that the same meanings can be expressed even when different words are used. For example, a technician talks to his fellow-worker about class specifications in terms that differ from those used in addressing a novice to the personnel field. Similarly, a scientist uses different words to express the same ideas when explaining his work to a professional society, a classification investigator, or his fiancée.

To put these concepts into practice, a classification investigator should not only analyze written and spoken statements made by others to determine as much as possible about the setting or context of the words, but also analyze his own competence at the difficult art of translating one's thoughts into the idioms of others.

THE ILLUSION OF DICTIONARY MEANINGS

A STATEMENT from Walpole summarizes the argument: "When using language, we never give all the details of the things we are talking about. Our words are dependent for their full effect upon our hearer's knowledge of the context. So, it is clear that there is no such thing as 'the right word,' or 'the right way' of making a certain statement."¹

The men who write and edit dictionaries are among those who disparage the use of dictionaries to determine precisely the meaning of words. Hayakawa explains this by pointing out that "The writing of a dictionary . . . is not a task of setting up authoritative statements about the 'true meanings' of words, but a task of *recording*, to the best of one's ability, what various words *have meant* to authors in the distant or immediate past. The writer of a dictionary is a historian, not a law-giver."² Again he says, "A dictionary definition . . . is an invaluable guide to interpretation. . . . It is for definition in terms of areas of meaning that a dictionary is useful. In such use of any word,

we examine the particular context . . . denoted (if possible) to discover the *point* intended within the area of meaning."³

Such statements as these may encourage personnel men to use new words more freely, to use old words in new meanings, or even to invent words. Temperance in giving technical significance to words is urged, however. Communication with other men breaks down when experts use technical jargon. Unless bridges are constantly built to carry meaning from the specialized to the normal use, words fail in their function of communicating ideas.

WORD MAGIC

A FURTHER complicating factor in communication is the tendency to confuse words with things, or even to believe that words have power over things. Primitives are great users of this "word magic." They believe that the utterance of certain words will cast a spell over their enemies, that the use of other words will drive evil spirits out of a friend's body, and that the speaking of a tabooed word will cause injury to the speaker. A civilized child, once he realizes that a name can be given to anything, goes on to assume: "(1) that when he learns a name for anything, he somehow gets to know the important characteristic of whatever the name is associated with, (2) that the uniqueness of the 'thing' is revealed by the name, and (3) that if a 'thing' has no name, it is either non-existent or inconceivable."⁴

These tendencies survive in adults. In the classification process it becomes evident when an individual tries to make words work for him. For example, an individual writing a job sheet who does not understand the classification process may believe that the allocation and salary are determined by the *words* describing a position, and not the *duties* belonging to it. Therefore, if in his opinion a certain position should carry a

¹ Hugh R. Walpole, *Semantics*. (New York: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1943.) p. 118.

² S. I. Hayakawa, *Language in Action*. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1941.) p. 57.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 71.

⁴ Irving J. Lee, *Language Habits in Human Affairs*. (New York: Harper and Bros., 1941.) p. 155.

salary of \$500 a month, he will attempt to locate the *words* which will bring about the desired salary.

An unusual and somewhat humorous case in point is that of a supervisor who submitted a job sheet describing the duties of a junior tabulating machine operator. It was known that there was no tabulating machine equipment in his office. When questioned by a civil service commission representative, he replied with a note of injured surprise, "The job sheet must be right for I had my stenographer copy it word for word from your official classification manual." This supervisor must have believed that the magic words from a magic book would bewitch the classifier into giving the desired allocation.

Perhaps a more typical case of this illogical thinking is that of an official who insisted that a position must be worth \$3,000 a year since that amount was provided in his budget. The budget had been prepared by this individual nearly a year before the funds became available. At that earlier date, he estimated the approximate increase in his work load and "threw in" several positions at arbitrary amounts to bring his total appropriation to a desired figure. He then defended this figure before a budget office and two appropriation committees. By the time the classifier was brought in to review this new position, considerable emotional weight was attached to it which completely obscured the original and extremely subjective basis of determining the salary. When questioned, the official could not make a firm statement as to the proposed duties and responsibilities, and yet he was insistent that the salary was the only appropriate one. He had come to believe that the words in the budget determined the position's worth.

Sometimes technical terms become magic words. For instance, the designation "identical additional position" has been widely used in one jurisdiction. Under the statutes and regulations, departments are permitted to allocate a new position to the appropriate class without prior approval of the civil serv-

ice commission if the new job is identical in duties and responsibilities to another position already approved. One agency, however, attempted to allocate as identical positions the positions of chiefs of a series of divisions so different in character and calling for such diverse qualification requirements that the positions were not even in the same class. Without raising the question as to whether or not positions are ever identical, or whether a single position as set up today will be identical with itself six months from now, it may be reported that this faulty attempt at classification was not the result of intent but rather of mistaking *words* for *duties* in the allocation process.

WORD LABELS

ONE analyst of these problems of communication sums up the subject by saying, "When our thinking goes wrong, it is nearly always because we have forgotten the simple truth that there is a difference between the name of a thing and the thing for which the name stands. . . . the label is not the overcoat. The signpost is not the city. The map is not the country."⁵ His analysis, summing up the findings of others in the field, shows three parts to the thinking process: (1) the *object* of the thought, such as a position; (2) the *thought*, or the act of thinking about the duties and responsibilities of the position; and, (3) the *naming* of the object, as assigning the title "assistant stenographer" to the position. When the name of an object is used, the name should bring into our thought processes a picture of the object. When the name is used without this connection, consequent thought processes may be warped.

The verb "to be" is especially troublesome in this regard. Naming is frequently done in sentences that have the general structure "A is B." If "B" and "A" are identical, no problem arises. When "B" is but the name for "A," or a label attached to "A," care must be exercised if the context

⁵ Hugh R. Walpole, *op. cit.*, p. 80.

is to give the correct picture. Consider the implications of the following sentence as an illustration of the point:

John Smith is a political jobholder.

The average, relatively informed person when hearing or reading such a statement will usually read into the context a number of things. Assumptions will be made about Smith's industriousness, honesty, and his attitude toward the merit system. As a matter of fact, no such broad assumptions are justified about this particular individual. Even if it is true that political jobholders on the average have certain undesirable characteristics (a thesis which has not been proved), it is still possible for this particular man to be a case that deviates to a considerable extent in any number or all of his characteristics from those possessed by his fellow "jobholders."

A recommended step to prevent this kind of loose thinking is to change the above sentence to read: "John Smith can be classified as a political jobholder." The interpretation of this context becomes: "John Smith can be classified in a number of ways; in one category, his relationship to positions in the state service, he can be classed as the occupant of a position which is normally filled by political nomination."

It is convenient, of course, to use the verb "is" in every-day work. The statement, "Robert Green is a messenger," would not seem to carry with it the emotional weight of the statement made about John Smith. However, it is still true that "The position occupied by Robert Green has been allocated to the class of messenger" is a more accurate statement of the facts and will not encourage the hearer to make assumptions about the man.

In the above discussion, it has been assumed that when a name or label is used it will bring into the thought processes a picture of an object. When a word is not a label for a concrete object, the difficulty of keeping the thought processes in trim is increased.

FICTIONS

MANY everyday words cloud our thinking because their objects are difficult to locate. Concrete terms cause relatively little trouble for they are easily associated with the objects for which they are names. It is hard to go astray when talking of apples, street cars, aeroplanes, bullets, dish-pans, pigs, or sidewalks. The difficulty begins with the use of abstract words, words which through usage have withdrawn a step or two from the objects or functions which they were created to describe. Competent classifiers have recognized that, when unsupported by context, the use of troublesome words such as, "assisting," "preparing," "handling," "editing," "examining," "conducting research," "supervising," "reviewing," or "preparation," "almost invariably, is a sign of inadequacy of information."⁶

Excluded from this troublesome group are the useful collective nouns, such as animal, coin, army, which are used to express an aggregate or collection of things or individuals. Although they need some watching, they are not in a class with such terms as "independent judgment," "unreviewed decision," "administrative approval," "assisting in the supervision of social work," and the many other phrases used every day in personnel work.

Several methods may be used to clarify the meaning of an abstraction; it may be paraphrased, using more concrete terms; it may be translated into a more elementary form; or it may be expanded. In conversation with an official, for example, the phrase, "has charge of the management of the Blanktown Institution," may be introduced. The phrase is vague as it stands. Certain questions, applying the methods outlined above, may make for a clearer understanding.

Paraphrased, using more concrete terms: "Is he the boss?"

Translated into a more elementary form:

⁶ *Position-Classification in the Public Service*, Report of the Committee on Position-Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Service. (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941.) p. 87.

"What work does he *carry* (etymology of "charge") on himself?" or "What work does he *have* merely a *hand in*?" (etymology of "management").

Expanded: "Do technical as well as business office employees report to him?"

These troublesome abstract nouns were termed *fictions* by Jeremy Bentham, England's utilitarian philosopher. In his opinion, many fruitless arguments arise through their use. The three steps given above are very similar to those recommended by him as a preventive to ward off pointless controversies.

Of course, it is not possible to eliminate abstractions from use; they are needed. In position-classification, however, they can become fictions by distorting or hiding facts. As a case in point, the term "coordinator" has become fashionable of late, but its loose application to so many functions has obscured its meaning. In discussing a job description sheet on which appeared "acts as coordinator to the various projects," it was found that the incumbent of the position would furnish information, make general suggestions about operations, and give opinions when asked to do so. In the amended sheet, this phrase was changed to read "acts as advisor to . . ."

In the same agency, another job sheet included the statement, "arranges for the coordination of correspondence." This coordinator's job was to "take a letter to everyone who ought to know about it and have him initial it." Many other uses of this and similar words in special senses will occur to classifiers.

THERE are probably as many different associations for words as there are people who use them. The use of words in a manner that arouses in the hearer a different thought from the one intended may form the basis for a tragedy or a comedy, but it is only a mistake on a job description sheet. In a statement of the duties of a personnel officer, there appeared the word "equivocal" used in the literal dictionary

meaning of "having doubtful meaning; susceptible of different interpretations." To the classification investigator (and probably to many other persons), this word carries with it the aura of something "questionable" or "suspicious."

Another group of abstractions causes misunderstanding because their use irritates the hearer or reader. Such irritants are more likely to cause arguments than settle allocations. For example, the term "delinquent children" is preferable to "bad children" in writing a specification on social workers. However, formal published specifications have referred to the organization of relief work "for the worthy poor," a phrase more likely to irritate than "for the unemployed." Class titles may also offend in this respect. "Human nature may object to serving as 'second class clerk' while entirely willing to be known as 'assistant clerk.'"⁷ The adjective "junior" is also reported as being objectionable to employees. Titles like "feeble-minded teacher" and "head examiner" seem laughable to everyone except the suffering employee.

CLASS SPECIFICATIONS AS DEFINITIONS

THERE are certain steps to be taken in order to insure that class specifications communicate ideas adequately and accurately. The material presented so far applies equally to written and spoken language and may, therefore, contain suggestions for clarifying the words and phrases used in position-classification specifications.

The following six points of advice summarize the essential elements: (1) use each important word or phrase in a specification to apply only to one concept or relationship; (2) make sure that in defining the class the words or phrases used are so clear that if they were read separately from the title of the class they would unmistakably identify the class; (3) expand to its full form the

⁷ Albert Smith Faught, "Classification of Jobs in Public and Private Employment," in *Proceedings*, 14th Annual Meeting of the Assembly of Civil Service Commissions, June 1921. Quoted in *Position-Classification in the Public Service*. Op. cit., p. 216.

meaning of each word or phrase about which there may be grounds for dispute, either in the specification itself or in a separate list of definitions; (4) keep in mind that a word or phrase may have more than one meaning to the reader and that the common meaning may be at variance with the dictionary meaning; (5) see to it that each word or phrase contributes to the job of defining the boundaries of the class; (6) see to it that phrases used in one class specification carry the *same* meaning when used in other specifications (i.e. avoid a shift in the meaning of terms from specification to specification in so far as is feasible).

Inasmuch as position-class specifications are definitions, further suggestions for improving their clarity may be gained from a review of the basic principles of definition. Any definition is, in a sense, a road by which an explainer, starting from a common point, takes a person to a point which is new to him. According to experts in this field, the number of such routes is limited. All of them have three parts: (1) a common starting point; (2) a definition route; and, (3) a destination. The process is analogous to describing to a stranger whom we meet at Broad and Main streets how to get to the civil service commission office.

Although there may be other routes, the following list⁸ probably covers the ground much more widely than the variety usually selected in writing specifications. The routes are described largely by giving examples, for it is felt that this will probably be the simplest and clearest approach.

Route 1. Direct Symbolization. "Attached is the Form 22a used by the employee." "This is it." In this form of definition, the object defined is presented physically or pointed out.

Route 2. Similarity. "The position is similar to that occupied by John Doe—see position description No. 182." (Says

Baruch, "It is helpful to regard individual positions, already correctly classified, as illustrations of the applicability of class specifications and of their scope and effect. . .")⁹

Route 3. Translation. "Attaches a bail (wire handle that extends across top of container)." "Instructs prisoners in the processes of burning (i.e. baking) bricks." In this form of definition the technical phrase or uncommon phrase is translated into everyday language.

Route 4. Part and whole. "In the Application Review Section, a part of the Examining Division, . . ." "As Chief of the ——— Branch, a part of the Division of Industry Operations, . . ."

Route 5. Whole and part. "Acts as Chief of a Services Division, which is composed of a Personnel Section, Budget Section, Planning Section and Central Supply Section."

Route 6. Opposition by cut. "Directs research on the development of tame hays (i.e. not wild hay)." This definition follows the pattern of "left is the opposite of right" and "white is the opposite of black."

Route 7. Opposition by scale. Route 6 shows two-valued relationships; opposition by scale develops the multiple, scale type of relationship: "As used in this plan, 'under immediate supervision' is at the opposite end of the scale from 'under general administrative direction;'" "The senior clerk dictates replies to letters which call for considerable judgment and knowledge of working procedures, whereas the assistant clerk dictates replies to more routine correspondence."

Route 8. Place: where. "Assigns work to, and supervises the work of, ward nurses in a general hospital." "Supervises laboratory investigations in soil chemistry at the State Soil Conservation Research laboratory." This type of definition shows that *it* is in this place.

Route 9. Place: whence. "Keeps records on tools, stores, supplies, and equipment re-

⁸ Adapted from "twenty-five definition routes" in Walpole, *op. cit.*, p. 121. This in turn is based on original work by Ogden and Richards in several articles and works.

⁹ *Position-Classification in the Public Service. Op. cit.*, p. 137.

ceived from each foreman in charge of a completed project." "Obtains mail forwarded from the loading platform." This type of definition shows that it comes from this place.

Route 10. Age. "A tracer form is a follow-up form which is issued when the completed work is not returned in 15 days." "Stale experience is experience acquired in the occupational field more than ten years ago with no intervening similar or related experience."

Route 11. Period. "The platform foreman is the individual who is responsible for the work during the first stage of operations." "The visiting nurse is a nurse who supervises the treatment of out-patients during the final period of convalescence." "Operates switch 30 minutes after sunset to turn on ground lights."

Route 12. Form (or shape). "Grinds meniscus lenses (a lens convex on one side and concave on the other)." "Supervises three branch chiefs, and an office manager; technical employees reporting to the branch chiefs and clerical employees to the office manager."

Route 13. Size. "Under general supervision, to have immediate charge of and be responsible for the work of a small group of employees." "Directs the activities of a moderately large division or of a small bureau."

Route 14. Degree (or the extent to which it possesses qualities, characteristics, or properties). "To perform high grade stenographic and typing work and moderately difficult, responsible clerical work."

Route 15. Substance (composition). "Applies dope, a coating of pyroxylin base with color added, to . . ." "Supervises and directs the work of a regional office, an organization made up of the several service divisions of the department operating in the various states comprising the region."

Route 16. State (condition). "Acts as director of personnel in a rapidly expanding war agency." "The court receives claims

arising out of the relations of landlord and tenant."

Route 17. Causation: emotive (emotional reaction in a human). As a rule, this type of definition would not be used in technical or objective operations. Falling under this heading are definitions which describe a governmental organization as a "New Deal agency," or a social worker as a "friend to the poor."

Route 18. Causation: mental. "Errors in judgments made may result in duplication of work" (i.e. bad judgment causes duplication). "Makes decisions that are based on a good understanding of rules . . ." (i.e. decisions are caused by understanding).

Route 19. Causation: sensory. "Grades tea by taste, color and aroma as to market value" (i.e. the taste, color and aroma determine the market value). "Removes bolts with rough or chipped edges" (i.e. the feeling of roughness causes rejection of bolts).

Route 20. Causation: physical. "Operates X-ray machine to make radiographs" (i.e. X-rays from machine cause exposure of X-ray plates). "Waterproofs surface by applying bitulithic compounds" (i.e. compounds cause surface to become waterproof).

Route 21. Behavior. "Gives nursing care to patients with Huntington's Chorea; such patients are characterized by marked facial contortions, decidedly jerky movements, difficult and grotesque walking." In a sense, every description of the activities of an incumbent of a position follows this route; "gives nursing care" is a definition of behavior.

Route 22. Sex. "Cares for and feeds stallions, horses of the male sex . . ."

Route 23. Use. "Operates steam road rollers . . . that are used to compact and smooth the asphalt top." "Prepares initial statements for a case history, a file used as a record of the client's personal and medical history and other information."

Route 24. Family relations. "The cottage mother is the wife of the cottage supervisor."

Route 25. Legal relations. "The officer who serves the warrant is called a marshal."

In using the definition routes, consideration must be given as to which part of the specification is being written. As in most scientific systems, the first part of a position-class specification is a general statement of those characteristics which are necessary to distinguish one class from others. The expansion of this section by the description of other characteristics which will assist the employee, supervisor, or novice personnel man to form a proper concept of the class forms a different part of the specification. The number of routes used and the amount of contraction or expansion of ideas will be different in the two parts.

It should be obvious that it would be impracticable to use all definition routes in any one class specification. As a matter of fact, the routes can apply not only to the whole specification but to any part of it, such as the general statement of duties and responsibilities, the difficulty and complexity of the work, supervision received, supervision exercised, administrative responsibilities, qualification requirements, and each illustrative example of work. As Ogden and Richards put it: "The ability to frame definitions comes for most people only with practice, like surgery, diagnosis or cookery, but as in these arts, a knowledge of principles is of great assistance."¹⁰

SUMMARY

AS A conclusion to this discussion, it may be desirable to restate briefly the points that have been elaborated upon in the foregoing pages. These points are as follows:

1. Words used in position descriptions depend upon the context.
2. Words are but signs which point to objects; a classifier must treat them as symbols which, unless handled carefully, may give an incomplete or inadequate picture.

3. When used by others, abstract words should be translated accurately; when addressed to others, abstract words should be regarded as possible sources of misunderstanding, wrong association, or even irritation.

4. Position-classification specifications, as a form of definition, should start from a point common to all who will use them and should be expressed in words which will be well understood.

5. The more definition routes used, the more likely is a specification to mark out unmistakably the limits of a class.

In presenting the material in this article, space limitations have prevented much exploration of the theoretical significance of the concepts. Each is, of course, capable of considerable expansion. For example, the statement, "words used in position descriptions depend upon the context," if regarded as a basic theory, might result in the following experimental development: At first, stress would be laid on the use of concrete terminology; if this was accomplished and found to be profitable, the next step might be the gradual elimination of qualitative terminology; as the development proceeded, the end result might possibly be the emergence of a quantitative system of position-classification.

Words, as tools in daily use, are important to classification men. In common with all craftsmen, the classifier can attain superiority only through mastery of his tools. If concepts concerning the use of words in position-classification are to be improved upon and their application extended, it is essential that the concepts be recorded and published so that analysis and criticism may start from a common point.

If research and reporting of this type resulted at first only in the confirmation of present practices, it would be well worth the effort. From such a base could be erected a firm structure into which new principles would fit and over which could be placed a sound procedural cover.

¹⁰ C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards, *The Meaning of Meaning*. (New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1936.) p. 138.

COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Responsibility of Executives over Subordinate Employees—Failure to Remove Incompetent Employees—Liability of Supervisor to Those Damaged by Negligent Supervision.

The case of *Fernelins v. Pierce*, 138 Pac. (2d) 12 (Cal.), presents an interesting aspect of the scope of the duties of supervisors with respect to control of subordinate civil service employees. The court ruled that "the power to suspend or discharge the subordinates from duty and to start proceedings for their removal from the civil service lists carries with it the correlative duty to vigilantly exercise the power, and . . . the negligent failure of such officials to act leaves them answerable in damages to persons who have suffered loss proximately resulting from such negligence."

The case arose on demurrers to the complaint, so that the pleaded facts were deemed to be true. Plaintiffs, the wife and infant children of a deceased prisoner, brought an action against the city chief of police and the city manager, seeking damages for the prisoner's death. The death occurred as the result of brutal and inhuman beatings administered by two police officers. These officers had engaged in such depraved conduct on numerous occasions in the past, to the knowledge of the supervisors, who possessed authority to suspend or remove under the civil service law, subject to review by the state civil service board. The court emphasized that the liability of the public official defendants was not based on any doctrine of *respondet superior*. They were being held accountable not for the negligence of the employees, but for their own negli-

gence in failing to remove the employees. Referring to the rule that an appointing power may be held liable for negligence in an appointment, the court said: "Where the superior officer has the power and duty of removal of a subordinate, no logical reason appears why his responsibility for failure to discharge a known unfit subordinate should be any less than for initially employing such a person."

It was contended that the right of the supervisors to remove was not a final one, since it was subject to review by the civil service board, so that they are not liable for failure to initiate proceedings. Passing on this point the court stated:

It is a specious argument which would immunize any officer or employee for neglect to perform his own clear duty merely because potentially his *proper* act *could* be rendered migatory by the *improper* act of a board or officer having a higher authority. . . . The law giving to a superior officer the power to suspend or remove subordinates would be little more than a contribution to the ego of the superior if it did not likewise place on him the correlative duty of vigilantly exercising that power in the protection of the public interest.

Commission Membership—Multiple Commission—Political Affiliations. An interesting case involving the usual bi-partisan multiple civil service commission arose in *People ex rel Goodloe v. Allman*, 48 N. E. (2d) 774 (Ill.), where the court ordered the publication of only the abstract of its opinion. The Illinois law, like most civil service statutes establishing a multiple civil service commission, provides that not all members of the commission shall be of the same political party.

A policeman who sought reinstatement on the ground that the civil service commission was not properly constituted under the statute because all three members of the commission were of one political party and, therefore, could not pass on the removal, challenged the authority of the commission. It appears that the

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Republican member of the commission, who was the minority member, after the policeman petitioner was discharged, changed his political affiliation to that of Democrat so that in effect there were three Democrats serving on the commission.

The court's abstract as published, reads as follows:

Under statute providing that three member civil service commission could not contain more than two members of the same political party, requirements of statute are met by appointment of a Republican and two Democrats, and fact that one month after discharge of policemen by commission, the Republican member requested the placing of his name on the Democratic party ballot did not conclusively show he had become a Democrat so as to permit the legality of his appointment to be attacked in a collateral proceeding by policeman seeking restoration of position.

Assumption of Duties of Another Position—Effect on Status of Incumbent. An Assistant Secretary of State to whom was assigned additional functions formerly performed by one holding the position of election clerk was not himself holding the election clerk position. Consequently, he could not take advantage of the provision in the civil service statute placing the position of election clerk in the exempt class, and extending general civil service protection to that position. "We do not think the record permits of a finding that he held two positions," the court held. "He received but one salary. In fact the testimony is that for the years during which he received the \$3,600 salary, no provision was made for any compensation for an election clerk in the appropriation act." (*Blackwell v. Civil Service Commission*, 31 Atl. [2d] 833 [N. J.]·)

Classification of Positions.—Statutory Duty—Right to Compel. The Minnesota Civil Service Law imposes a duty on the State Director of Civil Service to classify and allocate to permanent civil service positions employees who held state positions when the act went into effect and who come within the terms of the new law. It was held in *State ex rel. Spurck v. Pennebaker*, 9 N. W. (2d) 259 (Minn.), that the performance of this duty was mandatory and that a mandamus proceeding could be instituted by any citizen to compel the Director to classify and allocate the incumbents.

(Editor's Note. Compare *Pedrolie v. Kirby*, 163 S. W. [2d] 964.)

Salary—Reduction—Power. A civil service provision to the effect that employees shall not be removed, discharged, fined or reduced, was not violated by a reduction in the salary of an employee. "The tenure which the plaintiff enjoyed because of his civil service status was subject to the right of the governing body to adjust compensation as the exigencies of economic conditions might require in the exercise of good faith." (*Henninger v. Bergen County*, 32 Atl. [2d] 293 [N. J.]·)

Certification of Eligibles.—Status of Draftees under Special Statute.—Discretion of Appointing Officer under Federal Selective Service Act. A special statute in New York adopted in 1942 (Section 246, Military Law, Subdivision 7a), sought to give appointing officers filling police, fire, or prison guard positions the right to pass over eligibles who were classified by Selective Service as "1A." Because draftees classified as "3A" were about to be reclassified as "1A," the New York City Fire Commissioner passed over such 3A eligibles. The court held that the Fire Commissioner had no such discretion; that he could at most pass over only those actually classified as "1A."

"We realize that in passing over these eligibles who were subject to imminent reclassification and induction into the armed forces," stated the court in its opinion, "the Commissioner was motivated by what he regarded as sound public interest, and that he gave careful consideration to all facts. Yet, the statute gives him no such discretionary power (to consider those in 3A who are about to be reclassified in 1A)."

The court directed the Fire Commissioner to appoint those who had been classified as 3A at the time of their certification from the civil service eligible list, even though they had been reclassified as 1A soon thereafter and would soon be inducted into the military service after their appointment in the fire department. (*Matter of Berger v. Walsh*, App. Div. [N. Y.], July 9, 1943·)

Provisional Appointment—Qualifying For—Effective Date of Appointment—Necessity of Commission's Approval. The petitioner resigned from his position as deputy city clerk in charge of the marriage license bureau after a long period of service. He could not apply for

a pension because under the New York City Retirement Law the application for retirement allowance must be made by "a member in city service," which the petitioner ceased to be after his resignation. The petitioner, therefore, sought appointment to another position so that he could make application for retirement allowance while still in city service. He was appointed provisionally as a minor clerk in the New York City Department of Hospitals and assigned to work on November 5, 1942. His appointment was not approved by the Municipal Civil Service Commission until December 14, 1942, nor had the Commission prior to then approved the qualifications of the petitioner.

In a companion proceeding brought by a citizen (Richard Welling, President, Civil Service Reform Association), it was sought to compel the Commission to correct its official records so as to indicate that the appointee had been serving as a clerk in the Department of Hospitals only from the date of the approval of his appointment by the Commission, namely, December 14, 1942. His application thereafter for a pension allowance was denied him by the Board of Estimate. He brought a proceeding to compel the Board to grant him a pension. The court, in ruling on the companion proceeding, upheld the citizen's contention that the appointment of the petitioner as a provisional clerk became effective only on December 14, 1942, when the Commission first approved his appointment, and that when he resigned on December 15, 1942, he had not fulfilled the requirement of service for at least 30 days after filing application, as the pension law required.

The sole issue before the court in both proceedings was whether an appointment could become effective under the civil service law and rules before the Civil Service Commission could qualify and approve the appointment. The Commission claimed that it had been its practice to give retroactive approval to provisional appointments made prior to certification by the Commission of the qualifications of provisional appointees. With respect to this contention the court held (*Matter of Welling v. Marsh* and *Hines v. LaGuardia*, Special Term, N. Y. Supreme Court, April 16, 1943):

Both the [civil service] statute and the rule clearly require that the certification by the commission that

the nominee is qualified shall precede the provisional appointment of the nominee. . . . Although it is well settled that practical construction by an administrative body is entitled to grade weight in a doubtful case, it is equally well established that such practical construction may not override and nullify the clear and unambiguous provisions of a statute. No valid provisional appointment . . . could be made under Subdivision 1 of Section 15 of the civil service law until his qualifications had been certified as satisfactory by the Municipal Civil Service Commission. (See *Matter of Welling v. Fullen, et al*, 164 Misc. 456, affirmed 252 App. Div. 656.) Petitioner had resigned on September 3, 1942, and had not been validly reappointed until December 14, 1942, it follows that petitioner's application for a retirement allowance must be denied.

Promotions—Examination—Administrative Discretion. The determination of the practicability of filling a vacancy strictly by a promotional examination is essentially an administrative and not a judicial function; and a hearing on notice is therefore not a *sine qua non*. If there be an arbitrary and unreasonable exercise of discretionary administrative power, the action is subject to review and correction by the courts. (*De Stefano v. Civil Service Commission*, 32 Atl. [2d] 284 [N. J.].) The court upheld an administrative determination not to limit a promotional examination for the position of patrolman to those holding the immediately inferior position of chancemen on the police force. The court considered the statutory provision that vacancies shall be filled "as far as practicable, by promotion from among persons holding positions in a lower grade in the department."

(*Editor's Note.* Compare *Hecht v. Kern* [N. Y.], reviewed in the October, 1942, issue of *Public Personnel Review*, p. 326.)

Reinstatement—Back Pay—Requirement That Earnings Be Offset. When a civil service employee holding the position of parking meter collector and repairman in the City of Miami was unlawfully discharged, his right to salary for the period of unlawful discharge could be offset by the amounts he earned privately during that time. Recognizing that an officer is entitled to full salary in such cases, regardless of private earnings, the court pointed out that such right of full recovery does not apply to employees: "The term 'office' implies a delegation of a portion of the sovereign power to, and the possession of it by, the person filling the office." The duties of a parking meter repairman were deemed not to comprehend any delegation of sovereign authority. Consequently,

the plaintiff was merely an employee." (*State ex rel. Dresshell v. City of Miami*, 13 So. [2d] 707 [Fla.].)

(*Editor's Note.* For a discussion of a California case to the same effect, see the October, 1942 issue of *Public Personnel Review*, p. 327.

Seniority—Reinstatement—Necessary Parties. The issue as to who are necessary parties often arises in a mandamus proceeding to compel reinstatement of an employee laid off or suspended for lack of work or appropriation or abolition of position. In *People ex rel. Markee v. Barrett*, 48 N. E. (2d) 928 (Ill.), the petitioner, a senior stenographer, brought a mandamus proceeding to compel her reinstatement because she has been allegedly unlawfully separated from the service. She claimed seniority over two other senior stenographers who were retained in the service. The latter employees were not made parties to the proceeding. The proceeding was therefore remanded to the lower court for further consideration with the direction that the two senior stenographers retained in the service be made parties to the proceeding, and given an opportunity to be heard as to their status as compared with the petitioner.

(*Editor's Note.* It would appear to be unnecessary in most cases, and often impracticable, to make all of the employees claimed to have less seniority than the petitioner actual parties to the proceeding. Neither is it always essential for the disposition of a case that all persons only collaterally affected by the court decision, as distinguished from those directly affected, be made actual parties. The better rule would seem to be that the bringing in of other persons as parties should not be imperative where the decision can be finally made and the proceeding disposed of without them. Those who may deem themselves possibly affected may, of course, intervene and may be made parties to the proceeding in proper cases. Compare *Welling v. Fullen*, 164 Misc. 456; aff'd. 252 App. Div. 856 [N. Y.]; and *Matter of Conklin v. Board of Child Welfare*, 280 N. Y. 497.)

Abolition of Position—Power—Good Faith. In upholding good faith in the abolition of a civil service position, the court, in *State ex rel. Stoer v. Rarchig*, 49 N. E. (2d) 56 (Ohio),

stated that in determining this question it should be observed at the outset that the statutes relating to civil service have for their primary purpose economy and efficiency in the public service. The secondary purpose is permanent tenure in office for those employed in such service. "The power to create a position in the classified civil service includes the power to abolish such position," the court continued. "Therefore, any position in the classified civil service may be abolished by the employing officer if such act is done in good faith, solely for purposes of economy and more efficient public service."

Resignation—Conduct of Employee—Effect of Failure to Prefer Charges. The plaintiff, seeking reinstatement to the Louisiana Department of State Police, had been orally advised by the superintendent of the Department that charges would be preferred against him. The subsequent conduct of the plaintiff was held tantamount to a resignation, so that he could not seek reinstatement eight months later, despite the fact that no written charges were filed as required by statute (*State v. Alford*, 13 So. [2d] 845 [La.].) "Relator's actions in leaving his post, surrendering his credentials and equipment, drawing his pay and his accrued pension fund, and seeking work elsewhere, without protest, or demanding a copy of written charges and a hearing thereon before the police trial board," stated the court, "establishes by a preponderance of the evidence that he voluntarily left the department of his own volition. . . . There is no law that forbids an employee . . . to verbally resign and walk off."

Removal of Commissioners—New York Optional City Government Law—Authority of Mayor and City Council. In New York State all cities are required to establish municipal civil service commissions. These have substantially the same powers within their respective jurisdictions as does the state civil service commission in the state service. The New York Optional City Government Law, however, provides for various plans for the operation of municipal governments, and provides alternative methods of removal of civil service commissioners by the mayor of the city or the city council depending upon the optional plan adopted by that particular city. Special Term

(Supreme Court) held that the city council could remove the municipal civil service commissioners. (*Cary v. City of Binghamton*, 33 N. Y. S. [2d] 836.) The Appellate Division, however, held that the city council had no authority to remove the commissioners; that such powers rested solely in the mayor. (*Cary v. City of Binghamton*, 38 N. Y. S. (2d) 255.)

The Court of Appeals has now ruled that the city council in a city operated under the option chosen by the City of Binghamton may remove members of the commission. (*Cary v. City of Binghamton*, 49 N. E. (2d) 6.) The court held that the provision in the Optional City Government Law granted the power of removal of civil service commissioners to the city council and applies to all optional plans of government. The Civil Service Law (Section 11) provides for the removal of municipal commissioners only by the mayor or the state civil service commission. It was contended by the commissioners that the Civil Service Law alone governed their removal. If the language granting power to a city council to remove civil service commissioners is to be "subject to the provisions of a civil service law," the court pointed out, then it would be meaningless, since under the Civil Service Law the council had no removal power. Thus, the effect of the Optional City Government Law was to provide an additional method of removal of commissioners by the city council as well as the mayor or the state civil service commission.

(*Editor's Note.* This case was previously discussed in the July, 1942 issue of *Public Personnel Review*, p. 239, and in the April, 1943 issue, pp. 128-29.)

Removal—Nature of Hearing—Rights of Counsel. Where a city charter granted to a civil service employee, against whom charges had been filed, the right to be represented by counsel at the hearing before the civil service board, it was held that the employee "had the right to have his counsel conduct his case in the manner which is generally accepted by our courts—examination of witness, cross-examination, argument of the law and the facts." The refusal of the civil service board to allow the employee's counsel to argue the law and the facts was held error. The hearing before the board, while "not a common-law or a criminal proceeding, . . . is of a judicial character and must

be so conducted." (*Roberson v. City of Rome*, 25 S. E. [2d] 925 [Ga.].)

(*Editor's Note.* The general rule appears to be that the formal hearing on charges where specifically required by law is in the nature of a "trial," although strict adherence to technical rules of evidence and other technical formalities are not required as in a court proceeding. Substantial compliance with the procedure required by law is sufficient. What the law contemplates is a fair hearing with opportunity to examine and cross-examine witnesses, and a record of the hearing.)

Removal—Judicial Review—Exhaustion of Administrative Remedies—Application for Rehearing. The rule that administrative remedies must be exhausted before judicial relief will be allowed applies to a situation where employees, discharged after full hearing, failed to make a timely application for rehearing, as permitted by the civil service statute. "The petitioners ask this court to distinguish between a provision in a statute which requires the filing of a petition for rehearing before an administrative board as a condition precedent to commencing proceedings in the court . . . and a provision such as in the present act which it is claimed is permissive only. The distinction is of no assistance to the petitioners under the rule. If a rehearing is available it is an administrative remedy to which the petitioners must first resort in order to give the board an opportunity to correct any mistakes it may have made." (*Alexander v. State Personnel Board*, 137 Pac. [2d] 433 [Cal.].)

Removal—Failure of Notice and Hearing—Personal Liability of Removing Officer. The hazards of holding responsible public office apparently have not been fully appreciated. A new hazard has been uncovered by the Ohio courts in *Rawley v. Ferguson*, 48 N. E. (2d) 243, where the court ruled that a public official who unlawfully discharges a subordinate without complying with the procedure provided by statute was liable to the subordinate for damages in a tort action. The State Auditor discharged a subordinate civil service employee without giving him the required notice and hearing provided by law. The court held that by his failure to do so the department head acted beyond his legal authority, and he was,

therefore, liable to the subordinate for such damages as the employee might prove.

The court held that "if an officer—ministerial or otherwise—acts outside the scope of his jurisdiction and without authorization of law he is liable in an action for damages suffered by a citizen as a result thereof." Fortunately for the head of the department, the court, however, found that there had been prejudicial error in the admission of certain evidence, and the case was remanded for retrial.

Removal—Appeal—Constitutionality of Time Limitation. A tenure statute permitting removal of city police force members, and providing for a hearing only where one is demanded, is not unconstitutional as impairing the obligation of contract. "Whatever rights [the discharged employee] possessed were by virtue of the statute, which is now attacked," stated the court. "If the statute is void he was merely the employee of the city at sufferance and subject to discharge at will. . . . He may not claim the benefits of this statute and, at the same time, challenge its validity on the ground that it impairs his contract rights."

The employee also claimed that prior to the statute, he could bring an action for breach of contract of employment within six years. The statute limits the time for bringing an appeal from an order of discharge to thirty days. The court held that there is no constitutional inhibition against the legislature shortening the limitation within which an action shall be commenced, so long as a reasonable time is provided; and "what period of time is reasonable for that purpose is for the legislature to determine, if there is no denial of justice." (*Wilmont v. City of South Bend*, 48 N. E. [2d] 649 [Ind.].)

The court also applied the doctrine of exhaustion of administrative remedies as a condition precedent to judicial review.

Removals—Extent of Judicial Review of Facts and Law—Responsibility of Department Head in Management—Judgment and Discretion Not Reviewable—Appointment of "Substitute" Commissioners. The responsibility of a head of department in removing an employee on charges after a formal hearing in the nature of a "trial," and the extent of review by the courts of the removal, has been clarified in a

recent opinion of the New York Court of Appeals. (*Matter of Miller v. Kling*, N. E. [2d] [N. Y.], July 20, 1943.)

The County Clerk of Chautauqua County preferred charges against a war veteran who was serving as a searcher and supervisor of motor vehicles in the County Clerk's Office. The charges were made pursuant to Section 22, Subdivision 1, of the civil service law, requiring a formal trial on charges with a right to the employee of review in the courts on certiorari.

The Appellate Division had ordered the reinstatement of the employee on the grounds that the charges were trivial and unsubstantial; that the County Clerk's determination was unsupported by competent proof sufficient to satisfy a reasonable man; that the proven facts did not support such determination; and that the determination of the County Clerk should be set aside "as against the weight of the evidence."

The Court of Appeals agreed with the Appellate Division that some of the charges were unsubstantial, that some of the other charges were not established by competent evidence, and that even other charges and supporting proof were rather vague and general. However, the court found that "there were some charges which it deemed to be substantial or might be so considered by a reasonable mind," and because there was supporting competent proof of these last charges, the court reversed the decision and dismissed the proceedings brought by the employee.

Among the charges which were supported as reasonably established were that the employee was accused of over-staying his allotted vacation time by a few days without permission; of numerous mistakes in scheduling appointments for applicants' tests; of leaving the County Clerk's office without permission; also insubordination and inefficiency with relation to the handling of mail.

The court, in upholding the removal, stated:

We cannot say, as a matter of law that the County Clerk in treating those matters as substantial and serious, was acting whimsically, arbitrarily, irrationally or in bad faith. Nor can we say that those particular charges are unsupported by "substantial evidence," which is all that is required by way of proof. Indeed, as to the charge of overstaying his vacation, without permission, for three or four days, the fact is undisputed.

The County Clerk has the responsibility of managing her office efficiently. She has the power to remove her subordinates, subject only, when the subordinate is, like relator, a war veteran or a volunteer fireman, to

the condition that she grant the subordinate a hearing upon due notice and upon stated charges and that on such a hearing she sustain the burden of proving by substantial evidence, misconduct or incompetency in serious particulars (Civil Service Law, Section 22). When her determination comes to be reviewed in the courts under Article 78 of the Civil Practice Act, the courts have no right to review the facts generally as to weight of evidence, beyond seeing to it that there is "substantial evidence." It is laboring the obvious and oft-repeated to say that the courts may not substitute their judgment for that of the removing officer as to whether or not a subordinate should be removed.

* * *

A similar rule was applied by the Colorado Supreme Court in *State Civil Service Commission v. Colorado State Board of Health*, 138 Pac. (2d) 934, where the court upheld the determination of the civil service commission directing the removal of an employee who had appealed to the commission for review of his dismissal. The court pointed out that it will not interfere with the judgment or discretion of the civil service commission where there is evidence to justify the removal. The court reversed the decision of the lower court which had set aside the commission's order of removal, and held such action of the lower court erroneous, where the lower court had admitted in the course of its opinion that "it was difficult to determine whether the actions of the civil service commission were arbitrary and capricious."

Another interesting issue arose in this case. The lower court had ordered two civil service commissioners to disqualify themselves from hearing the case and to request the governor to appoint two substitutes for the purpose of hearing the particular removal case. The Supreme Court held that no such authority existed in the courts, pointing out that members of the civil service commission in Colorado are constitutional officers and are subject to removal only by impeachment. It held that the governor cannot remove members of the commission and that it therefore, "follows that he

cannot appoint commissioners to serve on special cases."

Pensions—Refund of Payments—Statutory Interpretation. Some state and municipal retirement systems provide for the refund of contributions made by employees to the retirement or pension fund; some deny such refund to persons who are dismissed from the service for cause; others provide solely for the refund of the amount of contribution of the employee but withhold the share contributed by the state or municipality toward the retirement fund.

The New Jersey law provides that the refund of monies paid into the civil service pension fund shall not be made "to an employee suspended or dismissed for cause which precludes him from eligibility to reappointment under the civil service rules." Plaintiff was discharged from his civil service position because of his conviction for a crime not related to his official duties. The civil service commission's rules provide for the rejection of applicants who have been "guilty of a crime or of disgraceful conduct." The employee's discharge was for a reason which under the rules renders him ineligible for reappointment, so that under the express provision of the state law he was not entitled to a refund of money paid into the pension fund. The commission's rule barring applicants who were convicted of a crime was held to be reasonable and proper even where it applied, as in this case, to withholding pension payments from the plaintiff. "One of the fundamental purposes of the pension of civil servants," the court stated, "is to secure good behavior and the maintenance of a reasonable standard of discipline during service." (*Connelly v. Municipal Employees' Pension Commission*, 31 Atl. [2d] 448 [N. J.].)

(Editor's Note. Compare *Rogalin v. Board of Education*, 49 N. E. [2d] 623; and *Matter of Eberle v. LaGuardia*, 285 N. Y. 247.)

BOOK REVIEWS

Organisation and Control of the Civil Service.

Sixteenth Report of the Select Committee on National Expenditure. British Information Services. 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. 1943. 55p. 30 cents.

In wartime, a national legislature operating within a democratic framework usually finds sufficient reasons for establishing at least one committee for the purpose of reviewing the effectiveness and the general direction of the war effort. Although motives for creating such committees may differ from time to time and place to place, several factors are generally involved. The executive is granted broad and sweeping authority to prosecute the war. The legislature feels that the executive's position is being enhanced at the expense of its own power and prestige. New agencies must be quickly established, financed, and staffed. Existing agencies must be utilized to the greatest practicable extent. All agencies must be brought into the closest possible coordination—a condition that is seldom achieved in an acceptable manner. Confusion in the administrative and policy areas develops. Taxes are increased. The national government borrows big sums. The normal channels and practices of trade and commerce are drastically altered. Entire communities are disrupted. Big parts of the population are uprooted, either because they are forced out of their normal occupations, or to enter the armed services, to participate in war production, or otherwise to adjust to the swiftly changing situation.

The haste-impelled organization and reorganization of a nation gearing to total war leaves few parts of the community unaffected. It is natural, then, that questions should be raised in many quarters, and that this general situation should be reflected in the attitudes and activities of members of the national legislature. One outcome is the establishment of

the investigating committee to examine expenditures out of funds provided by the legislature, and to review the general manner in which war activities are being conducted.

Partly for these reasons, a Select Committee on National Expenditures was first established in the 1939-1940 session of the British Parliament. Since that time, a series of reports have been issued dealing with different aspects of the British war effort. *Organisation and Control of the Civil Service*¹ is the fifty-sixth of this series and the sixteenth issued during the 1941-1942 session of Parliament.

As a preface to its report, the Committee explains that, while proceeding with its "examination into the war expansion and cost of Government departmental establishments," it was found that certain steps had already been taken by "executive action" for the purpose of "securing economy and preventing overlaps." A review of the report clearly indicates the Committee's belief that many of these executive actions were inadequate and that encouragement by a legislative committee was needed to bring about desirable advances. In anticipation of possible criticism regarding the scope of its present report, the Committee admits that some of the matters raised in its inquiry "may be considered as being beyond questions of war expenditure." From the very beginning of the inquiries in 1939-1940, however, it had been found that "question relating to the organisation of the Civil Service have constantly obtruded themselves. It is indeed inevitable that this should be so, for it has seldom been

¹As used in the Committee's report, the term "the Civil Service" embraces much more than a system of personnel administration or selection, and more than the persons or positions within the framework of such a system. As used by the Committee, the term means the "national government service" in the same manner as the term "the federal service" is used in the United States.

possible to consider any aspect of the war effort without reference to the administrative machinery that lies behind it."

With this explanation, the Committee presents a report which undoubtedly makes a major contribution to the administration of the affairs of the British national government, but which is also a little too diffuse in content to carry as great influence as might have been the case if its several parts had been more adequately integrated. Three of the report's parts deal with a description of present recruitment practices and a review of the use of technical and professional staffs in the government departments. Other parts, which are the Committee's greatest contribution to management, deal with "arrangements for watching over and promoting the efficient and economic organisation of the Civil Service as a whole" and the controls to which the government agencies are subject. Although these problems are related in a broad management sense, the Committee fails to point up these relationships in a satisfactory manner. The effectiveness of its findings might have been considerably increased had this broader concept of management guided the preparation of its report.

The discussion of recruitment is disappointingly sketchy, partly because previous reports had already reviewed certain aspects of this subject. The following comment of the Committee, however, is such a significant description of the war's effect on the recruiting and selection practices of the British Civil Service that it bears repetition:

Since the outbreak of war the functions of the Commission as a recruiting agency for the Civil Service have to all intents and purposes come to a standstill. Examinations have been suspended and recruitment has been entrusted to the Ministry of Labour and National Service. . . . One consequence of the changed arrangements is that war-time appointments, almost without exception, are temporary and that the Civil Service Commission is in no way committed to regarding such recruits as necessarily qualified for permanent retention after the war.

Further paragraphs dealing with recruitment and the use of professional and technical personnel relate to the establishment, by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, of the Central (Technical and Scientific) Register, the General Appointments Register, and the Central Register of Aliens for the purpose of organizing and appraising the records of persons likely to be qualified for appointment to positions in either government or industry.

There is also a short discussion of the Temporary Government Service Register which assists in the selection of routine clerical workers. It is noteworthy that the Central Interviewing Board, which relieves the Ministry of Labour and the interested Departments of the task of interviewing candidates for positions in the Administrative Class is headed by the First Civil Service Commissioner. Although appointments made as a result of these interviews are temporary and the Civil Service Commission assumes no responsibility for them, public confidence in the Board's work is strengthened because of the part played by the Commissioner. Other paragraphs of the report deal with the development of new sources of manpower supply, the training of personnel, and the more effective and economic utilization of skilled employees.

The personnel practices referred to in these portions of the report are reminiscent of many parallel developments in the United States, where the advent of war led the United States Civil Service Commission virtually to suspend open competitive examinations, to relax many of its controls, and to establish so-called "duration" appointments that carried with them no post-war assurances or prerogatives. Although the Commission never entrusted its recruitment activities to the Department of Labor or the War Manpower Commission, it did grant to the federal agencies great freedom in recruiting, selecting, and promoting personnel. An Executive Order also made the Commission subject to general policy directives of the War Manpower Commission, so far as filling positions is concerned. Only within recent months has the Commission begun to recapture a small part of the authority and direct responsibility that it previously exercised in this area. The Commission also cooperated with the National Resources Planning Board in the establishment and administration of a National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, an activity which has since been transferred to the War Manpower Commission. Furthermore, a member of the Civil Service Commission has served as a member of the War Manpower Commission since its creation in 1942.

* * *

Although the manpower portions of the Select Committee's report are interesting and provocative, the greatest and most significant

contribution of the Committee is made in the fields of organization and general administration. In this connection, the Committee reviews the recommendations made by the MacDonnell Commission (1912-1915), the Haldane Committee (1917-1918), and the Bradbury Committee (1919), which eventually led, in 1919, to the creation of an Establishments² Department in the Treasury³ under the general direction of a Controller of Establishments, the subsequent appointment of Establishment Officers in all of the larger departments, and the appointment of a Standing Committee of these officers under the chairmanship of the Controller of Establishments.

In describing the Treasury's activities in the field of departmental organization, several revealing facts are presented. From 1919 to 1939, the Treasury's Investigating Officers in its Investigating Section never exceeded four in number and at the outbreak of the present war was no more than two. In July, 1940, this force had been increased to 22; by the end of July, 1941, it had risen to 35; and by the beginning of June, 1942, it had expanded to 46. The Section was also renamed the "Organization and Methods Division" partly as a recognition of its enlarged scope. In the meantime (about the middle of 1941 and after the appointment of the Select Committee), an outside Chartered Accountant was invited to survey the results of the Treasury's Investigating Section and to advise regarding future developments. Partly as an outcome of this survey, the larger departments were encouraged to create Organization and Methods Sections of their own, and an Advisory Panel of three business men was created on a part-time basis to supervise the work of the Treasury's Organization and Methods Division.

The Committee's review indicates that the activities of the Treasury's Investigating Section and Organization and Methods Division have dealt almost exclusively with the pedes-

trian tasks involved in the simplification and improvement of methods, procedures, and forms. They have failed to encompass the bigger organization and administrative problems faced by the government departments. In appraising the Treasury's accomplishments in the fields of organization and administration, the Committee is anything but flattering and, in fact, presents serious indictments of the Treasury's work in these areas. This is amply illustrated in the following significant excerpts taken from various parts of the report:

The only concrete step that was taken to make use of the experience of the outside world was the introduction into the Treasury in 1919 of a few officers, versed in the use of office machines and appliances, to control the supply of such equipment to Government Departments. Their concern with organization seldom rose above the efficient use of the machines which they supplied. They were known as Treasury Investigating Officers. . . . In your Committee's opinion, as far as the Treasury was concerned, the period from 1919 to 1939 was marked by an almost complete failure to foster the systematic study of organisation as applied to Government Departments.

As far as the study and progress of administrative organisation is concerned, the record of the period between the two wars is singularly disappointing. The recommendations of the Haldane and Bradbury Committees gave an unmistakable lead. It is true that within the Treasury itself an Establishment department was created and that Establishment officers were appointed in most Departments of State. Those two steps were an indispensable preliminary to further progress. There, however, with the insignificant exception noted, . . . progress seemed to come to an end. . . . A stimulating reminder was provided by a report of the Tomlin Commission in 1931. . . . Again the results were negligible. Even in the re-armament period from 1936 to 1939, when the threat of war was insistent, there was no overt sign that the Treasury or the Departments accepted the proposition that the organisation of administrative machinery was a subject requiring expert and specialised study or that any lessons in the art of management could be learned from industry and commerce either in this country or abroad. . . .

As a result of 20 years' neglect, the outbreak of war found the Treasury insufficiently equipped to deal with the problems of administrative organisation which were forced upon it.

At the same time, the work now being carried on is mainly sectional in character and is largely restricted to the lower levels. It is, in short, concerned with some of the twigs rather than the branches and trunk of the departmental trees. . . . Yet it is against the organisation at the highest departmental level that charges of congestion, duplication, insufficiency of delegation and slowness in reaching decisions are frequently brought.

With respect to the organization and methods activities of the individual departments, the Committee found that most sections responsible for this work "are subordinate to the

² Generally speaking, "establishment" activities have included personnel, procedural, labor saving, office management, and purchasing functions.

³ The Treasury is the central agency in the British government that exercises control over general administrative matters. In recognition of this fact, the Committee explains in its report that "the Treasury in virtue of its control and senior position as the Department of which the Prime Minister is the titular head, has been entrusted with the task of evolving the practical measures of co-ordination needed to give effect to the conception of the unity of the service."

Principal Establishment Officer of the Department and form an integral part of his division", and that they have possessed neither the status nor the power that would enable them to take an effective or authoritative part in discussion about major problems of organization. The officers in charge of organization and methods work have been too limited in outlook, experience, and capacity to make substantial contributions to major administrative and organization problems. The Committee expresses the belief that the present situation would be transformed at once if there should be introduced into each department "an officer of wide experience and high rank, specifically charged with the duty of overseeing the administrative organization on the highest plane."

To meet the unsatisfactory situations that it found during its inquiries, the Committee recommends that the position of the Organization and Methods Division of the Treasury be clarified and improved and that its work embrace administrative and organization problems at the highest levels. It proposes that the Treasury establish a Second Secretary, who would report directly to the permanent Secretary of that agency. The Second Secretary would have under his jurisdiction two Under Secretaries, one of which would be directly responsible for the work of the reoriented Organization and Methods Division, and the second of which would be responsible for the establishment activities of the Treasury. Under this arrangement, the Organization and Methods Division would, of course, no longer report to the Advisory Panel, which would continue solely as an advisory body.

As a corollary to its recommendations regarding Treasury activities, the Committee suggests that the Organization and Methods Sections in the major departments should be placed under the general direction of an "officer of wide experience and high standing who would be directly responsible to the permanent head of the department, and would be equal in status to the chiefs of the most important divisions and directorates." This officer would be known as the Director of Organization and would also have general supervision over the establishment activities of his department.

* * *

In addition to reviewing recruiting activities, the use of professional and technical em-

ployees, and organization and administrative matters, the Committee submitted recommendations on three other problems. It clearly recognized the need for developing competent administrative talent within the Civil Service by other means than the regular recruiting practices for the administrative class. After pointing to the fact that the civil servants in the higher ranks of the administrative class have, under British methods of recruitment, entered the Civil Service early in life, and in practice their experience has been limited to assignments which they have had within the service, the Committee recommends the creation of a Civil Service Staff College, which would be open to "picked members of the Administrative and Professional Grades, as well as promising members of the Executive and Clerical Grades. . . ." The curriculum would include courses in public administration and in modern developments in trade, industry, economics, and the social services. Through this college, civil servants attaining positions in the higher levels would have an opportunity for obtaining some formal training in the major problems with which they are faced in the course of their regular work. This is a proposal that may mark a major advance in the training of persons for administrative positions. It is undoubtedly a development which has resulted partly from the need for the training of qualified Organization Officers and partly from the increasing extent to which British civil servants are entering the administrative class from the executive and clerical grades—a practice which has been discouraged until comparatively recent years.

Other proposals submitted by the Committee have less to commend them. For example, the Committee suggests the appointment of a standing committee, authorized by the House of Commons to conduct a continuing review of the machinery of government with special reference to the economic use of personnel and the administrative methods and organization of government agencies. This committee would be staffed under the general direction of an "Assessor" who would have certain statutory powers and who would be "comparable in status with the Comptroller and Auditor General" and would be vested "with the right to call at all times for reports, papers and other information concerning the matters properly falling within the purview of the committee."

This suggestion is open to serious criticisms. In the long run, it would probably result in the unnecessary and harmful harrasing of departments and their responsible officers. It would place in the committee great authority over departments and agencies of the government which would better be exercised by the House, the Cabinet, the Prime Minister, or the responsible heads of departments. It might also lead to the development of a practice wherein departments would hesitate to make desirable and needed organization changes without first obtaining the approval of the committee. This would place the committee in a position where it would no longer be free to criticize the results of changes which it approved and in which it directly participated. It would also transfer to the committee much of the responsibility which the present Select Committee has recommended, in other parts of its report, be directly vested in and performed by the Organization and Methods Division of the Treasury and the corresponding units of the departments. Superior results would probably be obtained by continuing the practice of appointing special Royal Commissions at periodic intervals for the purpose of reviewing the machinery of government and general civil service practices. This would avoid the pitfalls of vesting such responsibility in a single continuing legislative committee with unusual power and would permit the periodic appointment of special *ad hoc* bodies that would serve for temporary periods and that would be completely free and uninhibited to make such recommendations as they found necessary.

Serious objections can also be made to the Committee's recommendation that a new post of Parliamentary Secretary be created for the purpose of giving exclusive concern to civil service questions. The function of such an official would conflict with those of the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Financial Secretary, all of whom are called upon from time to time to answer questions in the House of Commons concerning personnel, administrative, and fiscal problems. There has already been some indication that this suggestion of the Committee will not be adopted by the present government.

* * *

Past events described by the Committee and the future possibilities contemplated in its re-

port manifest a trend that is somewhat parallel to similar developments in the United States. The creation of establishment activities in the Treasury and other departments in 1919 marked the beginning of an orderly attempt to review and improve procedural, office management, and related matters within the British national government. The work of the Treasury's Investigating Section was confined to the lower levels of administration as reflected in procedures, methods, and forms. To fill a bigger need, organization and methods activities were instituted in the Treasury and other major departments. Although these latter activities have been disappointingly inadequate, the recommendations made by the Committee with respect to this work indicate that the Treasury activities in the higher realms of management will become more effective and that general departmental performance in this area will also progress to a more satisfactory level.

In many respects, developments seem to have reached a more advanced stage in the United States. The former Bureau of Efficiency (1913-1933) was largely concerned with making improvements in the methods, procedures, and business administration of federal agencies. The Bureau of the Budget has always been interested in similar matters. Not until comparatively recent years, however, has this latter agency become a major influence in the real management of federal affairs. In 1939, the Executive Office of the President was established partly for the purpose of bringing greater policy and administrative unity into the work of federal agencies. The Bureau of the Budget was made an important division of this office. A Division of Administrative Management was established within the Bureau for the general purpose of reviewing the broad problems involved in the administrative management of the government, encouraging corresponding activities within the several government agencies, and coordinating this work as far as practicable. Similar divisions have been established in most federal agencies as an important part of this program. The Select Committee refers indirectly to some of these matters and points specifically to the establishment of the Executive Office of the President and the recent activities of the Bureau of the Budget as noteworthy and exemplary developments.

Although a general appraisal of the Select

Committee's report indicates that it fails to capture the concept of management that characterized the broad sweep of the report (1937) of the President's Committee on Administrative Management, the Committee has nevertheless made major and positive contributions to the administration of the affairs of the British national government. It has produced a document of real significance that impressively marks the way toward another advance in the management of the British civil service.

G. LYLE BELSLEY

War Production Board
Washington, D. C.

Wartime Supervision of Workers. R. S. Schultz.
Harper and Brothers. New York. 1943. 206p.
\$2.25.

This book consists of two parts. The first, thirty pages in length, includes short chapters on standard practices in production supervision and essential requirements for foremen. The second part, covering one hundred and forty-eight pages, includes chapters on morale, matching workers to jobs, avoiding accidents, improving work habits, stimulating workers' interests, training workers and training supervisors. In this second part, a dozen or more questions are posed at the beginning of each chapter, and additional questions are presented at intervals in the chapters. Following each question is a categorical answer, "True" or "False," a percentage of production supervisors and executives who agree with the author's answer, the author's reasons for his answers, and in some instances, samples of forms or anecdotes to illustrate the point in question.

According to the author (pages 3, 4, 6, 31 and elsewhere), the book contains "one hundred standard statements or dependable principles underlying human factors in production." He advises the reader to first try to answer the one hundred questions, which are also printed in the appendix, then to check his answers with a printed key. This reviewer followed this advice and decided that thirty-one of the questions were so phrased that neither a true or false answer was correct. Of these, nineteen were guessed right according to the author's key, and eleven were wrong. These results raise very serious doubts about the value of this list.

As an illustration, the answer to Question 3 "People usually accept or reject a new idea more because of the prestige of its sponsor than because of its merit," depends upon the way the idea will affect one's own position and the relative prestige of its sponsor. Likewise the answer to Question 4, "In a dispute between an individual and a corporation most people favor the side of the individual," the answer depends on how many people and what their relations are to the individual, and to the corporation, and to other organizations such as labor unions, clubs and religious or political organizations. It is such variables as these that make almost a third of the author's hundred questions appear to this reviewer to be so ambiguous as to be definitely in need of revision. Indeed the author in several of his explanations markedly qualifies the given answers.

Although it would appear that a hundred questions should cover the subject fairly adequately, this reviewer finds that a number of the questions overlap considerably and that important topics are scarcely mentioned. No space is allowed here to discuss this topic. Although the book is entitled *Wartime Supervision*, problems peculiar to wartime production are given scant attention.

This reviewer failed to find a statement of the number or experience of the supervisors and executives whose answers were tabulated and reported for each question, hence little evaluation of the significance of their answers can be made here. The published results show that the easiest quarter of the items were answered by 95 per cent or more of the group, the easiest half of the items by 76 per cent or more, and the hardest quarter of questions by 67 per cent or less of the group. Since 50 per cent of any group would probably mark the right answer by chance, the lowest quarter of these items are answered only slightly better than chance, and a count shows that twelve of the questions were actually answered more often wrong than right. One of these questions, "Doing the job as a whole effectively and easily is assured after learning each operation separately," seems to be a clear question upon which the supervisory group was not well informed, but the other eleven questions seem ambiguous, or a matter of agreeing upon a definition. Thus Question 17, "General intelligence can be increased significantly by train-

ing," was answered correctly by only 30 per cent of the group. Its answer depends upon the definition of intelligence, which according to common usage, may mean general alertness or ability, instead of an inborn capacity to observe, learn, or reason.

With these considerations in mind it must be concluded that this set of a hundred statements cannot be considered standard in composition, content or application; that they should be considerably revised; and that discredit may come to persons who attempt to use them without qualifying them. The subject is stimulating, of course, and the method of presenting questions and answers is probably a good one, although not so new as the author claims. The book would be much more valuable if the illustrations were more carefully chosen and explained, and a few good authoritative case histories were added.

EDWARD B. GREENE

War Manpower Commission
Detroit, Michigan

Industrial Relations Handbook. Edited by John C. Aspley and Eugene Whitmore. The Dartnell Press, Chicago, Illinois. 1943. 1055p. \$7.50.

This *Industrial Relations Handbook*, edited by Messrs. Aspley and Whitmore, can hardly be classed as recreational reading, but it does furnish a valuable source of reference to a large number of people. One could soliloquize that Army Regulations are not pleasurable reading either, but they are basic and directive, furnishing a working knowledge essential for large numbers of uniformed personnel who must possess such knowledge to do their required work today.

Personnel managers in industry will find in this volume a guiding handbook of factual information accurately and carefully compiled and edited. To those responsible for, or interested in, public relations in industry, the book is indispensable. The work deals with management's labor problems, and sets forth commendably high standards and goals.

Although the editors do not disclose labor sympathies, one feels that the work has been prepared by persons who would suffer genuinely if the industrialist on the one hand were to label them as "pro-labor," or if labor leaders were to class them as industrialists with ulterior

motives. The program for labor relations in industry outlined in the *Handbook* is one of which Americans of these war days may well be proud because at last in America we have legislation upon which such programs can be built, and because we have industrial leaders courageous enough to build them. The thought will not escape the reader that there is studied freedom from expressed prejudice against those whose leadership during the past decade has been responsible for much of this modern industrial and labor legislation. If the reader is interested in industrial and labor relations today, he will follow the author through carefully analyzed discussions covering the growth of trade unionism in its relationship with organized business and the development of legislation affecting both.

The following sentence quoted from Section One challenges the reader's attention and conveys clearly the studied efforts to disarm those who approach the work with prejudice: "With the possible exception of certain jurisdictional strikes, most labor disputes can be avoided or quickly settled if there is a better understanding on the part of management from labor's point of view, and a better understanding on the part of labor from management's point of view." The author then proceeds to discuss collective bargaining, unions in their relation to price stabilization, the effect of the war on industrial relations, and the labor union of today and of the future. The reader gets an understanding of the National Labor Relations Act, the Fair Labor Standards Act, the Public Contracts Act, and the Social Security Act through a carefully edited digest of all of them.

There are forty-five sections in this book, together with supplements and an index. The entire volume covers more than one thousand pages. The book does not sermonize; the style is direct; the work is factual. It is packed full of illustrations of today's better business methods in dealing with today's better organized labor. It is a handbook plus a guiding directive factually accurate and dependably suggestive. It offers a program for those willing to be guided in advancing better relations for private capital-industry and for private capital-conscious labor.

The personnel worker in the public field and the public employee, particularly the public employee who is union labor conscious, will

find the book of great value. The portrayal of gained experience in negotiating labor or collective bargaining contracts in industry, and analyses of the federal and state laws which make such things possible, will offer guidance to that rapidly growing number in the public field who have led or are preparing to lead in making similar contracts in their fields. The program outlined for inducting the employee in industry is in the main applicable to the public employee. A knowledge of the job in which the employee is to be placed, an acquaintance with the responsibilities of the incumbent in reference to other jobs, and the incumbent's responsibility in relation to those with whom he works are all equally applicable to private industry and public employment. Of similar interest to all is the responsibility of the employee to take advantage of opportunity extended to him through employee leadership for group hospitalization and group insurance, and to make full use of first-aid instruction to protect himself and other employees from injury and health hazards.

One who reads this book is given the opportunity to become familiar with the causes of heavy employee turnover, tardiness, absenteeism; the value of the suggestion systems, group meetings, educational movies, the open house for employees and their friends and families, employee publications; and the use of the grievance committee and employee job protection and retirement systems.

This reviewer's chief interest in the book is its value to those with roots deep in the public employee field. It need not be said now at the close of this review that every subject that has been discussed in terms of personnel management in industry is equally of interest to the public personnelist, the public employer, the public employee, and the union leader of public employees.

LT. COL. A. E. GAREY

Fort Miles, Delaware

BOOK NOTES

The Book of the States: 1943-44. Council of State Governments. 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois. 508p. \$4.00.

The 1943-44 biennial edition of *The Book of the States* is a continuation of a series begun in 1935. The volume contains a comprehensive array of factual information and sta-

tistical data about the various aspects of the country's forty-eight state governments, and serves as a valuable source of reference for the public administrator as well as for the governmental research worker. Among the sections of the volume is one devoted to merit systems and employee retirement systems in the various state services. Also included are statistics showing the number of employees and total payrolls of the several states.

The Cabinet Politician. Dorothy Ganfield Fowler. Columbia University Press, Morningside Heights, New York. 1943. 344p. \$3.75.

The author of this book scrutinizes the time-honored tradition of national politics that the Postmaster General portfolio shall be given to the ablest politician in the cabinet of each incoming President. It also analyzes some of the effects of this practice in terms of the distribution of patronage and, quite often, the incidental disruption of civil service. The evolution of the office is traced from 1829, when it first became a cabinet position, to 1909, when the pattern of "cabinet politician" and chief patronage vendor had become established and accepted. Aside from being a scholarly contribution to the political history of the country, the book throws considerable light on some of the submerged but potent forces with which the civil service reform movement has had to contend.

Regulatory Administration. Edited by George A. Graham and Henry Reining, Jr. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York. 1943. 254p. \$2.75.

The editors of this volume have brought together a collection of seven monographs, of which two are devoted to the over-all aspects of regulatory administration and five are concerned with regulation in specific fields. The scope of discussion is indicated by the titles of the various monographs: "Regulatory Administration," by George A. Graham; "Police Administration," by O. W. Wilson; "Regulation in Public Health," by Gaylord W. Anderson; "State Labor Law Administration," by Henry Reining, Jr.; "Public Utility Regulation," by William E. Mosher; "Regulation of Railroads," by Wilbur LaRoe, Jr.; and "The Location and Utilization of Authority in a Regula-

tory Agency," by Leon C. Marshall. The several authors not only discuss the underlying philosophy of regulation in the public interest, but also devote considerable attention to policy formation and internal administration of the regulatory agency.

Are the American People Preparing for Victory? American Planning and Civic Annual. American Planning and Civic Association, 901 Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C. 1942. 254p. \$3.00.

This volume, consisting of a comprehensive collection of articles, addresses, reports, and discussions, explores the many-sided aspects of post-war planning in terms of governmental functions. Planning accomplishments of governmental agencies—federal, state, and local—are recounted, and problems still awaiting solution are examined. Much of the material was derived from programs of two recent meetings of planning officials: the 1942 National Conference on Planning, held at Indianapolis, Indiana, May 25-27, 1942; and the Round Table Conference on Wartime Uses of State Parks, held at Chicago, Illinois, September 23-24, 1942.

Dynamic Administration. The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett. Edited by Henry C. Metcalf, and L. Urwick. Harper and Brothers. New York. 1942. 320 p. \$3.50.

Mary Parker Follett is recognized as having been a truly outstanding political and business philosopher. Perceiving that the principles of organization are identical regardless of the purpose of the organization, Miss Follett devoted her later years to the study of business management to supplement her earlier work in the

field of government. This book of lectures represents a tribute to Miss Follett and her philosophy, which briefly is that an enduring democratic society, implemented by intelligent organization and administration of government, works toward an honest integration of all points of view, so that every individual may count effectively both as a person and as a part of society as a whole. Subject matter of the book includes topics such as: "Business As An Integrative Unity;" "The Meaning of Responsibility in Business Management;" "The Psychology of Control;" and "Some Discrepancies in Leadership Theory and Practice."

Careers in Labor Relations. Florence Peterson. Occupational Monograph No. 32, American Job Series. Science Research Associates, 1700 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. 1943. 49p. 60 cents.

Careers in Public Health. Adrian G. Gould, M.D. Occupational Monograph No. 35, American Job Series. Science Research Associates, 1700 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. 1943. 49p. 60 cents.

As their titles indicate, these pamphlet monographs in the series published by Science Research Associates describe their respective occupational fields in terms of the nature of the work involved, pay levels, conditions of employment, job opportunities, and similar points that are uppermost in the minds of youths planning a vocation or adults seeking employment. As such, they can be of assistance to educators and vocational counselors, as well as to personnel agencies seeking to augment their regular recruitment literature.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

66. Jenks, C. Wilfred. Some problems of an international civil service. *Public Administration Review* 3 (2) April, 1943: 93-105.—The principles to be followed in organizing and staffing permanent international institutions have an importance unparalleled in emergency agencies. Effective leadership from within by world officers, who are relieved of all national responsibilities and who hold their positions for long periods, is an indispensable condition of the effective functioning of world institutions. The chief administrator of an international agency must be a world officer of state and not the representative of a national government. The staffs of world agencies of tomorrow must have the qualities required for any high position in the public service, plus an international outlook. Such qualities include the strength to withstand the pressure of their national governments to make them mere mouthpieces for national interests. A staff with such a combination of qualifications, working under the pressures which are certain to exist, must have assurance of the permanency of their positions. Their declarations of loyalty should be paralleled by an obligation binding their respective governments to guarantee such permanence. Salary scales should be kept at a level which would not impair the prestige and independence of the service; proper classification and selective promotion are therefore essential. The personnel program should be administered through a unified international civil service common to all international organizations. A single world administrative tribunal should have jurisdiction over all existing and future international institutions and their staffs. As world organization costs money, adequate financial plans and programs are necessary to build and maintain a firm and effective organization.—*Robert M. Hart.*

67. Mautz, William H., and Durant, John D. Population and war labor supply. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 38 (221) March,

1943: 31-42.—Six million workers were added to the labor force of the United States between March, 1940, and December, 1942. Where can 3,500,000 more workers be secured by December, 1943, to meet the War Manpower Commission's estimated labor requirements? Growth of the working age population provided 1,500,000 of the 6,000,000 and will provide a further 500,000 out of the 3,500,000 needed. The increase in the labor force in the male population over 45 is nearing the limit imposed by disability, chronic illness, and old age. Full-time employment of children under 18 is restricted by child-labor and compulsory school-attendance laws, but these restrictions have been relaxed somewhat. Not very many more children under 18, however, can be brought into the labor market as full-time workers unless a wholesale sacrifice of educational standards is decided upon for the sake of additional labor supply. Otherwise, the principal contribution of children under 18 is likely to be in the form of part-time or seasonal work. The reservoir of women 18 years old and over not in the labor force was estimated at 33,000,000 at the end of 1942. From this reserve must be drawn most of the 3,000,000 additional workers needed by the end of 1943. In November 1942, 4,500,000 women not then in the labor force were available for full-time employment. This number included 1,300,000 women 45 to 64 years old and 100,000 over 65. Unless the problem of relieving young women of their family responsibilities is successfully solved, these older women will have to provide an increasing share of the needed labor supply. Comparisons of national labor requirements with sources in the national population are misleading, since, in areas where comparatively little essential war production is carried on, labor surpluses tend to develop when nonessential production is curtailed. It is not easy to transfer these surpluses to areas of labor shortage, yet women and young persons will have to be employed much more extensively in such areas than in the nation as a whole. One of the most difficult problems in the geographical distribution of manpower is to provide an adequate farm labor supply. Difficult as it will be to meet seasonal peaks

in an expanded agricultural production program, the problem of replenishing the full-time farm labor supply is still more difficult. Urban workers are likely to be reluctant to take jobs on farms. Less than one-sixth of the persons not in the labor force who were available for jobs in November 1942, were willing to take farm jobs, although nearly one-fifth of them lived on farms. The success of national manpower policy will depend chiefly upon effective direction and coordination of the activities of national manpower agencies, regional and local War Manpower Committees, and joint labor-management committees in the hundreds of local labor markets throughout the country.—*Michael Levine.*

68. Miller, Frieda S. *Women and their jobs.* *Survey Graphic* 32 (5) May, 1943: 182-84, 227-28.—The current estimate of 15,000,000 women in gainful employment and the possibility that if the war continues we may approach the British figure of 80 per cent women workers in industry raise many questions concerning their postwar employment. If the country is to be able to provide full employment for men returning from the war some women must withdraw from the labor market. In the newer industries, however, large sums of money have been invested in a labor force of women. Industry is not likely to scrap that investment and consequently will tend to keep women at work. The problem of how women can carry on the function of homemaking while working in industry has not yet been solved. There is widespread sentiment in favor of community adjustments for women workers, such as special shopping priorities, special transportation schedules, and nursery schools. Adoption in this country of specific benefits for the homemaker along the lines of the Beveridge Report might induce women to devote full-time care to their homes and children. The fact that women are often paid less than men for the same work is likely to be a strong incentive for industry to retain women in jobs in the postwar period. There has been a certain amount of public recognition of the importance of an equal-pay standard. Of 551 plants applying for dispensations from the Labor Law, 314 reported an equal pay scale, 173 reported a lower pay scale for women, 26 reported an equal pay scale for women in some occupations but a lower scale in others, and 38 did not report on the relationship between men's and women's wages. Extensive deviations from peacetime labor standards have included limiting hours of work, providing one day of rest in seven, and requiring safe and sanitary working conditions, all of which have in recent years been extended to men as well as women. By the end of the war, when women will have been accepted in most labor unions, they will be in a better position

to exercise their right of choice with respect to employment.—*Adrian E. Gory.*

69. Perkins, Frances. *Women's work in wartime.* *Monthly Labor Review* 56 (4) April, 1943: 661-65.—Our first year of war has led to phenomenal changes in the trends and patterns of women's employment. Women engaged in gainful employment now number about 15,000,000, or over 3,000,000 more than at the census taken March 31, 1940. Latest estimates place the number actually in war employment at 4,000,000 and predict 6,000,000 by the end of 1943. The most spectacular trend is the influx of women into fields normally considered masculine domains. This trend has been notably characteristic of war plants, but it is also true in other avenues of employment. Other occupational shifts for women which are traceable to the emergency are the change of domestic workers from household employment to work in private or public enterprises, and the transfer of professional and non-professional women from their former employment to work in governmental agencies, war industries or in the auxiliary units of the military services. There has been a breakdown of prejudice against certain types of women workers. Married women are in greater demand, the federal government is advocating the employment of older women, and negro women are entering occupational fields formerly closed to them. Women workers in the aircraft industry have increased from 4,000 to 118,000 since Pearl Harbor. Thousands have been employed for the manufacture of ordnance, precision instruments, and in the heretofore strictly masculine machine-tool industry. The steel industry anticipates much more extensive use of women; government navy yards have been leading the way in hiring them. The largest number of women in any of the key war industries is found in the manufacture of electrical machinery and equipment. Not to be forgotten are the hundreds of thousands of women remaining at their regular peacetime machines, whose products now go to the armed forces, or those working in plants and entire industries which have been converted from civilian to war production. During the past year emergency training programs have been opened extensively to women. Among them are the Vocational Training for War Production Workers, sponsored by the United States Office of Education; the Manpower Commission's Training-Within-Industry program; and the government-financed Engineering, Science, and Management War Training Program. When so many new workers, including much larger proportions of women, are drawn into industry, the need for promoting a safety and health program is apparent. The United States Department of Labor is carrying on an intensive and extensive program to pro-

mote the safety, health, and efficiency of all workers. Finally, when the war is over women must not be accused unfairly of taking men's jobs, as at the close of the last war. Government, labor, and industry must not overlook the needs of American women who have made their contributions and their sacrifices, too, for victory and democracy.—Ray Mullins.

70. Stewart, Ward. **Management conferences—an aid to better supervision.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (8) April, 1943: 3-6.—Through all the barrage of criticism currently being levelled at the federal service runs one central theme: inadequate supervision. To many, supervision is merely telling somebody what to do and disciplining him when he fails. To only a few has it ever occurred that there is an art and science to good supervision. And to a still smaller fraction has it been revealed that people can learn to become good supervisors. A program of management conferences covering the essentials of good administrative supervision was recently undertaken by the Foreign Funds Control Division of the United States Treasury. The two specific objectives of the conferences were: (1) to assist the division heads and section chiefs of Foreign Funds Control in carrying out their administrative and supervisory responsibilities more effectively, and (2) to provide a basis for closer collaboration and mutual assistance between the various operating sections and the Administrative Services Division in increasing the effectiveness of the agency as a whole. The great majority of persons making suggestions as to subjects needing greater emphasis in future conferences mentioned various phases of personnel management, particularly position-classification and employee training. Most important of all is the development of a new point of view toward administrative and supervisory responsibilities—the need for applying the principles of democracy to everyday administrative problems. Certainly the results of the program to date indicate that the contribution which sound supervisory training can make toward meeting the manpower crisis is far greater than is generally recognized.—Robert C. Sampson.

71. Unsigned. **The role of cities in post-war planning.** *Public Management* 25 (5) May, 1943: 130-38.—The recommendations of the National Resources Planning Board, submitted to Congress in March 1943, are of extreme importance to cities because they may form the basis for many new federal and state laws which will guide or control urban social and economic programming for years to come. These recommendations are presented in three parts: (1) post-war plan and program; (2) wartime planning for war and post-war; and (3) security, work, and relief policies. Post-war planning is ex-

pressed in terms of expanded development and construction of physical facilities (urban redevelopment, housing, transport terminal reorganization, and energy development), in plans for health and welfare services, and for employment security. Plans for such comprehensive municipal programs to be undertaken when the war is over should be made now and adequate authority and funds should be made available by federal, state, and local governments to promote such planning. The rebuilding of urban America is possible in our generation if the following "tools" are obtained and used: public power to acquire and employ land for purposes determined to be in the public interest; public power to construct and manage housing, commercial or industrial structures and transport terminals; an equitable and integrated taxation system; a realistic zoning plan; organization for planning on a metropolitan basis as a regular, functioning part of government; and a modernization and simplification of building codes. State and federal governments will have to participate in implementing the program by passing the necessary legislation to permit powers and activities needed locally, by furnishing both technical and financial assistance, by more equitable distribution of revenues to urban areas, and by the establishment of a national transportation agency to develop general plans for exercising leadership in programs of transport consolidation, and terminal unification and reconstruction. An urban-planning procedure has been developed by the Urban Section of the National Resources Planning Board to be used now and in the post-war period in meeting both day-to-day and long-range needs. The principal stages in the procedure are: (a) a rapid preliminary survey is made of the area (physical, economic, social, and organizational features); (b) desirable and possible objectives are set up and action programs are prepared; (c) alternative patterns are sketched; (d) the existing physical pattern of the city is studied to determine which elements are free to change and which are relatively fixed; (e) the ideal alternative patterns are adjusted to fit limitations of present conditions, thereby producing a working plan; and (f) a comprehensive program for improvement of the working plan and for continuance of planning is developed. This procedure is being refined and tested by application in six communities which have been dislocated by military installations or war industries and are therefore in need of immediate planning aid.—Barbara L. Brattin.

72. Willson, E. A. **Maintenance of adequate personnel standards during the war emergency.** *Public Welfare* 1 (4) April, 1943: 119-20.—Scarcity of qualified public welfare personnel in North Dakota county welfare agencies has been of serious propor-

tions during the past year. The shortage of candidates and the rapidity with which registers are depleted hardly warrant the cost of administering merit system examinations. Raising salaries by state legislation proved no complete solution to the problem of attracting and holding qualified workers. Consequently, several amendments to the merit system regulations have been made, providing for: (1) use of comparable merit system registers from other states; (2) appointment at salaries above the minimum on the basis of pay received by permanent employees of like experience; (3) reduction of minimum educational qualifications and substitution of teaching and other similar experience for previous welfare experience. Another amendment is being considered to provide for emergency appointments for the duration of the war. One of the big difficulties in amending merit system rules and regulations is the several months' delay before they can be made effective, since approval must be given by nine separate federal and state agencies.—*Jean Charters Graham.*

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

73. Latham, Earl G. *The technique of administrative reporting.* *Public Administration Review* 3 (2) April, 1943: 106-18.—In the present war, as in the last one, the War Department, the Navy Department and the Marines have launched projects for reporting administrative change. The need for the chronicling of current administrative history in other federal war agencies has resulted in the establishment of a project for this purpose in the Division of Administrative Management of the Bureau of the Budget. The President considered such a project helpful "in planning current improvements in administration in addition to its main objective of preserving for those who come after us an accurate and objective account of our present experience." In a project of this type the administrative reporter must be at a place in the administrative hierarchy which is close enough to operations to enable him to understand the problems of the field and high enough to allow him to observe the formulation of general administrative policy. The top position on the staff should require in its incumbent a knowledge of public administration and the ability to write. Those with a background of teaching and research in public administration are good material; people with experience in the editorial side of journalism and the professional academic historian may also qualify. The staff might consist of a chief, an assistant, a writer, a research secretary, and a stenographer. Sources of information are archive materials, such as statutes, administrative orders, manuals and memoranda. Notes on formal and informal conferences, records of telephone conversations and decrees of admin-

istrative officers are also important. The historical reporter may also create historical records from his observations and interpretations of people and events. When the reporting function is performed from a point outside the agency, there is an advantage gained in terms of broader perspective and an opportunity to observe relationships among agencies, although the intimate contact is lost. But wherever the function of administrative reporting lies, its greatest value is the revelation it affords of the actual way in which administrators operate, to the end that they may operate more efficiently in the future.—*Charles H. Bentley.*

CLASSIFICATION; PAY

74. Dickinson, Z. Clark. *Men's and women's wages in the United States.* *International Labour Review* XLVII (6) June, 1943: 693-720.—The historical background of the comparative relationship between occupation and earnings of male and female wage earners in the United States divides itself into four phases: the first World War, the first inter-war years, the New Deal, and the present war through 1942. The first World War marked the initial large-scale resort to female labor to replace the men drawn into the armed forces. The period was marked by official declarations purporting to assure these women of equal pay, at least as far as they proved able to do work equivalent to that of the men they replaced. The equal pay issue was raised most sharply in the manufacturing industries in which the men displaced were well-organized and normally hostile to low-wage competitors. The great contributions of women to the war efforts of their respective nations in 1914-18 did not correspondingly transform their position in the post-war vocational world, yet substantial gains were held. The rapid demobilization of men and their return to industry was perhaps facilitated by the equal pay movement of wartime, but the general feeling of obligation to re-employ men from the armed forces was the dominant factor. The increasing percentage of women among all persons gainfully employed was largely accounted for by such occupations as teaching, office work, and merchandising, which had included many women even before 1914. Abundant grounds still remained for complaints that women were underpaid by comparison with men. Both economic and political efforts to equalize pay rates were slow in bearing fruit. At best the labor movement remained lukewarm to women workers, and the protection promised by several state minimum wage laws was largely withdrawn by reactionary decisions of the United States Supreme Court. With the advent of the New Deal, the movement for equality of opportunity between sexes was greatly advanced by social legislation and administrative reforms. With this background plus the

immense mobilization of men for the armed forces, the present war has wrought improvements in the economic status of women which appear likely to leave firm impressions upon the post-war world. Many problems of definition and measurement must be considered in determining the extent to which unequal pay has prevailed, how such departures from equality may be accounted for, and how the equal pay principle may be interpreted for work done only by women. With proper allowance for such factors as irregularity of employment (including short-time and over-time), occupational skill, age, experience, and method of remuneration, indications are that the average hourly earnings of American female wage earners have commonly run as high as 80 per cent of those of males. A few other circumstances on which quantitative data available are fragmentary, but which appreciably affect the relations between men's and women's wages, are dependents, the "pin-money theory" of women's work and pay, trade union organization, versatility of the worker, and the arbitrary separation of occupations into "men's work" and "women's work." The future prospects for continuing the trend to remove industrial handicaps under which women are employed are improved by women's changed position with respect to voting and trade union membership, changing methods of labor management, such as wage incentives and job evaluation, and by the implication of equal pay in current comprehensive programs of social security and full employment.—G. M. Morris.

75. Smith, Mapheus. *An empirical scale of prestige status of occupations*. *American Sociological Review* 8 (2) April, 1943: 185-92.—Three hundred and forty-five Kansas high school and college students evaluated the prestige status of 100 representative occupations by means of a two-step procedure: (1) preliminary ranking of occupations from high to low prestige status on the basis of order of rank, the distinctions between occupations to be made entirely on the basis of occupational prestige; and (2) rating each occupation on a scale of 100 points, the lower limit of this scale being conceived as reserved for the occupation having the lowest prestige in the United States according to the rater's personal estimation, and the highest being reserved for the occupation having the highest prestige, regardless of whether the extreme limits were included in the occupations of this study. Mean ratings, together with the standard errors of the mean, were determined for each occupation. High government positions were found to possess the highest prestige status among those rated, with United States Supreme Court Justice leading (99.02), followed in order by ambassador to foreign country (97.56), cabinet secretary (97.08), United States Senator

(96.21), and Governor (95.25). In central positions are located such occupations as electrician in own business (57.42), hotel manager (56.89), city policeman (54.91), locomotive engineer (51.45), and railway conductor (49.90). Somewhat above the middle group are county sheriff (63.01), and social or welfare worker (61.81); these in turn are considerably outranked by trained nurse (67.59). In general, there was greatest agreement among raters in the case of occupations at extremes of the scale, although some near the middle of the 100 point scale, such as hotel manager, bookkeeper, private secretary and typist, also have low standard errors. Occupations rated very differently by different raters include major league ball player, mate of ocean-going vessel, and social and welfare worker. Occupational prestige status as determined in this study was found to correlate fairly high with chances for eminence, employing as a criterion the relative chances that different occupations have for inclusion in "Who's Who in America."—William T. McDonald.

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

76. Bennett, George K., and Fear, Richard A. *Mechanical comprehension and dexterity*. *Personnel Journal* 22 (1) May, 1943: 12-17.—Confronted with the necessity of filling a large number of machine operation jobs created by the conversion from peace-time manufacturing to war production, an eastern company turned to psychological tests as a means of selecting employees who had the ability to learn machine operation. A battery consisting of the Revised Army Beta test, the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension test, two-hand coordination, hand-eye coordination, and hand-tool dexterity tests was first tried out on present machine operators and then administered to employees on non-machine jobs and to new applicants. Only applicants scoring above the 80th percentile were considered for hiring, but persons already employed who had somewhat lower scores were transferred to machine jobs. Comparison of test scores with supervisors' ratings a year later showed that the proportion of workers with high test scores decreased progressively as supervisors' ratings went from "excellent" to "poor," while the proportion of men with low scores showed a corresponding increase. Ratings of new employees were appreciably higher than those of reassigned older employees. Multiple correlation of test scores indicated that the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension and hand-tool dexterity tests, used in combination, permitted slightly better prediction of job success than did the unweighted combination of all five tests. (Article includes chart showing relationship of test scores to supervisors' ratings.)—Charles W. Fredriksen.

77. Ferguson, Leonard W. **The effects of a second administration of an employment test.** *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (2) April, 1943: 170-175.—The records of 243 applicants who had taken a Life Office Management Association employment test more than once were studied to discover the average increase in test score. The mean increase for all applicants was found to be 12 points. Most of those persons whom the first test score indicated should not have been hired turned out to be relatively unsuccessful employees. To overcome the distortion produced by the second score when the first rating could not be obtained, it was necessary to raise the critical or passing level 25 points, an amount which represented approximately one standard deviation of the distribution of the original test scores.—Norman J. Powell.

78. Jackson, Robert W. B., and Ferguson, George A. **A plea for a functional approach to test construction.** *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 3 (1) Spring, 1943: 23-28.—The primary function of educational and psychological tests is to discriminate between individuals or groups. Validity of the measuring instrument is actually secondary. Many believe that test scores should be nearly normally distributed, perhaps on the assumption that traits are normally distributed in the population. But since we cannot know just how they are distributed in any one group, we should instead define the kind of discrimination wanted and construct tests giving maximum discrimination where it is needed along the scale. For example, a critical score is best set at a point between the modes of a bimodal distribution of scores. If the purpose of a test is to discriminate between groups rather than individuals, a U-shaped distribution of scores is best. If we wish to discriminate between individuals equally well at all points in the scale, a platykurtic or even rectangular distribution would serve best. A skewed distribution gives finest discrimination along the tail end of the scale. Only when greatest discrimination is wanted at both ends of the scale is a normal distribution appropriate. Tests giving special type distributions can be constructed if the items are valid and discriminate clearly.—John Ohlson.

79. Powell, Norman J. **Relation of order of appearance to mark in oral tests.** *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (1) February, 1943: 104-09.—An analysis of two New York City Civil Service Commission examinations was made to determine whether or not the order of appearance at an oral interview had an effect on the ratings assigned. The examinations used were Junior Civil Service Examiner, for which 52 candidates appeared, and Supervisor, Grade 3, Department of Welfare, for which 160

candidates were interviewed. In the examination for Junior Civil Service Examiner there was a decided tendency for oral marks to climb as the test went on. The tendency, which seemed to be losing its force toward the end of the test, was not explainable on the basis of the ability increases defined by the written and experience ratings. The examination for Supervisor, Grade 3, showed no such definite trend, although the half of the group which was interviewed last averaged somewhat higher than the first group. The experiment also attempted to determine the influence of a given rating on the one received by the following candidate. It appears that as the quality of a candidate increases over the previous one, the rating on the next man tends to increase. Ratings of pairs of candidates consecutively examined bear closer resemblance than might be expected from pure chance. Care must be exercised to avoid such transference of ratings and to apply standards uniformly.—Robert I. Biren.

80. Shneidman, Edwin S. **A note on the experimental study of the appraisal interview.** *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (2) April, 1943: 196-205.—The interview has the unique function of appraising the candidate's general fitness or ability in terms of his personal qualifications for a specific class of employment, rather than in terms of his knowledges or skills related to that work. Interviewers are confronted with the difficulty of creating a situation in which the appraisal of general fitness can be made without asking questions which relate to the candidate's specific knowledge, information or skill with respect to the job. To test this difficulty an experiment was conducted by setting up two interview situations. In one situation the candidates were questioned in the usual manner by an interview board. In the other they were asked to react, not to formal questions, but to a set of stimuli that were neutral insofar as the job in question was concerned, namely, the Rorschach series of ink blots. There were two hypotheses on which this study was premised: (1) the more uniform stimulus situation engendered by the use of the ink blots would result in greater uniformity of ratings among the judges in the experimental interviews; and (2) the standardization of the interview procedure would eliminate the criticism that a series of interviews does not present identical situations to all candidates. The correlations between the same traits in the different interviews, computed by the rank-difference method, range from $.03 \pm .18$ to $.41 \pm .15$. In terms of relative reliabilities of the two groups of raters, both boards behaved much the same in spite of the introduction of a drastically different method of interviewing. This fact would appear to minimize the error involved in the use of the two-board technique.—Charles H. Bentley.

81. Tiffin, Joseph, and Lawshe, C. H., Jr. **The adaptability test: a fifteen minute mental alertness test for use in personnel allocation.** *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (2) April, 1943: 152-63.—The Adaptability Test is a 15 minute test of mental alertness designed to help identify persons who should be placed on jobs that require rapid learning or independent judgment. The test was first developed by preparing 120 items and classifying them into two groups of unequal difficulty. The less difficult items were then given to a group of navy trainees and the more difficult items to a group of engineering juniors and seniors. Papers of the top and bottom quartiles with respect to total test score were compared in each group in order to ascertain the individual item discrimination value. As a result, 80 discriminatory items were obtained, and these were arranged in approximate order of difficulty and administered to a second group of navy trainees. The 70 best items were retained and distributed between a *Form A* and a *Form B*, each consisting of 35 items matched for item difficulty and discrimination value. Both forms were given to a third group of navy trainees and the 15 minute time limit was established as the shortest time that resulted in satisfactory reliability. Experimental analysis showed the two forms to possess a high degree of comparability. Probable errors of measurement obtained by tryout of the test on several groups ranged from .73 to 1.88. To obtain data on validity, the test was given to a group of 88 clerical employees. The average score of the better employees was significantly higher than that of the relatively inferior employees. Further evidence of validity was secured by giving the test to 200 men prior to their admission to a navy training program for electricians. Training school instructors' ratings were compared with test scores. The men rated by their instructors as being in the highest 25 per cent of the group averaged 20.6 in test score whereas the lowest 25 per cent averaged 13.4. The difference of 7.2 between the means of the high and low groups is 12.4 times its probable error, establishing the difference as statistically significant. When the test was given to a force of 28 female employees engaged in a simple repetitive job, the results suggested that low scoring persons are not poorer than the average on repetitive work and in the long run may be superior employees on simple, routine jobs. (Norms in terms of percentiles for each test form are presented for female applicants, navy electrical trainees, clerical workers, and Purdue seniors.)—Norman J. Powell.

82. Unsigned. **Pooled interview aids recruitment.** *Manpower Review* 10 (4) April, 1943: 10-11.—Positive recruitment by means of a pooled interview is an arrangement whereby an employer interviews a number of preselected applicants at one time.

This innovation has been used by the United States Employment Service, especially in the case of transfers involving the shifting of large numbers of workers from one area to another. For such a device to be successful, thorough preliminary work is essential. The prospective employer must furnish exact information on the number of workers needed and give details about wages, hours, living conditions and other terms of employment. More particularly, the employer's representative should possess outright hiring authority, and when possible, should give assurance about transportation expenses and available housing facilities. At present, a proposal to have certain war production employers station their representatives in Employment Service offices is being considered. Needless to say, the pooled interview, despite its many advantages, has some limitations. It should be used only when there is certainty that an employer is getting the maximum use of his present staff of workers and that the local labor supply has been exhausted. Furthermore, even when these conditions are met, transportation and housing difficulties may circumscribe the effectiveness of the time-saving interview. Finally, the employer must be willing to make definite commitments to the employee and to hire him on the spot, since all the advantages of speed will be lost should hardship result for the worker.—Rita Davidson.

83. Unsigned. **Testing as a part of military classification.** *Science* 97 (2526) May, 1943: 473-78.—The construction of psychological tests for use in the classification and assignment of army personnel is a function of the Personnel Research Section of the Classification and Replacement Branch, The Adjutant General's Office, War Department. Classification is utilized to conserve manpower and expedite training, and tests are employed at every stage of the complex classification process which continues throughout each man's military career. Tests are administered by various officers at several levels or points in the induction and training process. The Personnel Research Section is divided into five subsections: Test Construction, Statistical Analysis, Field Studies, Editing and Reporting, and Specialized Training. Typical tests prepared, standardized and utilized by these groups include: Army General Classification Test, Mechanical Aptitude Test, Radiotelegraph Operator Aptitude Test, Achievement and Trade Knowledge Tests, and a variety of warrant officer tests and Army Specialized Training Program tests.—Robert I. Biren.

PLACEMENT; SERVICE STANDARDS AND EVALUATION

84. Copp, Tracy. **The physically disabled and war manpower.** *Public Welfare* 1 (6) June, 1943: 176-80.—It is estimated that there are over one million

disabled persons who are unemployed, unsuitably employed, or employed at below their maximum capacity. Because of current conditions in the American labor market, employers are gradually liberalizing physical standards for workers. This may mean that large numbers of physically disabled persons are securing employment without the proper guidance or special preparation necessary for their own welfare and for their maximum utilization. The situation presents a challenge to federal-state rehabilitation agencies, especially to the Vocational Rehabilitation Service. This federal-state cooperative program is now established in every state and in several territories. Although the relatively small case load may not fully justify its participation in the manpower program, the techniques which it has formulated represent an important contribution in the treatment of problems of employment adjustment. Five thousand new cases per month are now being added to the September, 1942 case load of 65,000. During the first quarter of 1943, over 3,000 placements were made in 450 kinds of work in war industries. Fourteen per cent of these placements were in the government service. The maintenance of relationships with referral agencies, such as the United States Employment Service, Selective Service, and the workmen's compensation agencies, has helped to provide the primary selection of cases made necessary by the fact that not all disabled persons are handicapped for employment. All preparation services, including physical, vocational, and social diagnosis, training, and physical treatment, are given with the object of increasing employability. Further, a case is not closed with a placement, but with an assurance after a follow-up period of two or three months that the placement is successful. Such thorough treatment is necessary, despite current manpower pressures, in order to avoid jeopardizing the worker's health, hindering war production, or hampering the development of the larger program which must come in the adjustment of war veterans to civil life. After preparation for employment, the placement itself should be made through the Employment Service, where adequate consideration is given to the special conditions involved.—*Kenneth S. Dougan.*

85. Ginsberg, Eli. Occupational adjustment. *American Sociological Review* 8 (3) June, 1943: 256-63.—One thousand selectees released by the army in the fall of 1941 in the City of New York were studied from the standpoint of their age and occupational pursuits previous to induction, use made of their skills while in the army, and their interests upon being released. The men were classified into two groups: those under 28 years of age, and those above 28. The younger group were largely unskilled. The older group, comprising about 613

persons, represented a variety of unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled occupations. Analysis demonstrated that prior to induction, skilled groups suffered less from unemployment than either the semi-skilled or the unskilled; that there was no significant difference between the semi-skilled and the skilled group as to occupational or job mobility; and that wage mobility was conspicuously absent in all groups. In the use of skills possessed prior to induction, the study revealed that the correlation of army duties to work history tended to increase with the level of skill. The classification system of the army apparently worked well in the case of men with professional training, and moderately well for skilled and semi-skilled clerical, mechanical and electrical workers. All in all, it appears that the system worked fairly well when one remembers what the army was faced with in 1940 and early 1941, when units had to be formed rapidly and men with special skills could not be kept in "pools" until requisitioned, when the personnel working in classification was new, and the capacity of reception centers was limited, as well as the fact that one third of the men had no skill whatsoever to offer the army. So far as skilled workers were concerned, the army appears to have had little influence on their occupational objectives. Upon release they apparently were interested in returning to their former occupational fields. More than one-half of the semi-skilled were willing to return to their jobs, but few of the unskilled workers indicated a similar willingness. More than one-half of the skilled and semi-skilled and one-third of the unskilled workers sought employment closely related to their army duties. An appreciable number of the unskilled workers sought to make use of skills acquired in the army. It was only in the unskilled group that there were any appreciable number who sought higher wages than they had earned previous to their induction. The study indicates that returned men will differ as a group from those that went into the army. They will be looking for meaningful work, and apparently many will refuse to return to their former jobs and occupations. This foreshadows great occupational and social unrest when peace comes.—*John H. Huss.*

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

86. Nelson, Eleanor. War-time requirements for employee morale. *Personnel Administration* 5 (8) April, 1943: 11-14. During the course of the war, federal workers have been moving forward to an ever-higher level of efficiency and morale. However, there are lines along which further progress remains to be made for the entire group of federal workers. For maximum production, planned use of manpower is needed. Neither the Bureau of the Budget, the Civil Service Commission, nor the

War Manpower Commission provides the machinery for considering government personnel requirements as a whole, setting up priorities within the total, and matching them against the available resources. The effective performance of these functions by a new arm of the office of the President, which might be called the Office of the Administration of Federal Personnel, would have highly favorable effects on employee morale as a result of the elimination of duplication and bottlenecks. Labor-management production committees are also proposed to draw upon the enthusiasm and ingenuity of federal workers. In most departments, little progress has been made because of the desire of administrators to obtain the participation of unorganized workers. It should be recognized that such committees add to the resources of management, which is itself organized, the resources of organized employees, and that union organizations provide a means of bringing forth suggestions and effectuating decisions, even among unorganized employees. Weakened morale results when federal workers find themselves in an adverse position with respect to standards of pay in comparison with workers in private industry. The operations of wage boards have tended consistently to lag behind in granting increases parallel to those in private industry. Belated and partial recognition of overtime work of per annum employees has been embodied in recent pay legislation, but basic pay scales have not been adjusted to meet the rising cost of living in the way in which the War Labor Board has operated for private industry. A simple and uniform set of salary standards is needed to relieve the present confusion of legislative and administrative decisions. The federal government should also exercise leadership in solving problems with respect to living conditions in production centers, where the morale and production of all workers is seriously affected. It is unfortunate that policies prohibiting discrimination against women and minority groups, which have been stated by the government as applying to the entire national economy, appear to have been less well implemented within the government itself than in private employment. The prevalence of reports of violation suggests that this problem is

increasing in the federal service. Finally, serious detriment to employee morale results from the absence of job security adhering to government employment. Dismissals resulting from semi-secret investigations of the Civil Service Commission, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the War and Navy Departments, or at the instigation of the Dies Committee, have been made without specific charges or upon the flimsiest of excuses. The great bloc of loyal, patriotic, and hardworking government employees need assurance that they will not be arbitrarily dismissed and blacklisted.—*Edith K. Mosher.*

87. Rushin, Emmett R. A new frontier for employee-management cooperation in government. *Public Administration Review* 3 (2) April, 1943: 158-63.—The organization of employee-management committees in governmental agencies is dependent upon the usual considerations of size and composition which apply in the formation of any representative committee group within a formal organization structure. The employee group should be selected from members of a formal employee organization, in order that union and management members may represent a cross-section of management responsibilities. The effectiveness of such a "victory council" will be effective only to the degree to which it is accepted as a practical method of putting the agency's resources to work for war purposes. Employee suggestions must be encouraged and properly rewarded. The council function must strengthen rather than weaken the relationship between the employee and his supervisors. Methods of handling employee suggestions and testing their practicality are varied and should be "tailor-made" for the particular agency by its council. The types of awards used in government employee suggestion plans are: the cash award, meritorious within-grade salary advancement, and citations of merit. The award plan used by the National Youth Administration makes use of meritorious promotions supported by a merit point system administered by an awards committee of the victory council. The victory council has grown out of war-time necessity, but its application should be useful in peace time as well.—*Robert M. Hart.*

END OF VOLUME 4

The October (No. 4) issue of PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW concludes Volume 4 of the publication, covering the calendar year 1943. A subject-matter index to this volume and a title page accompany this issue for the convenience of subscribers who wish to bind the volume as a unit.

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